

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

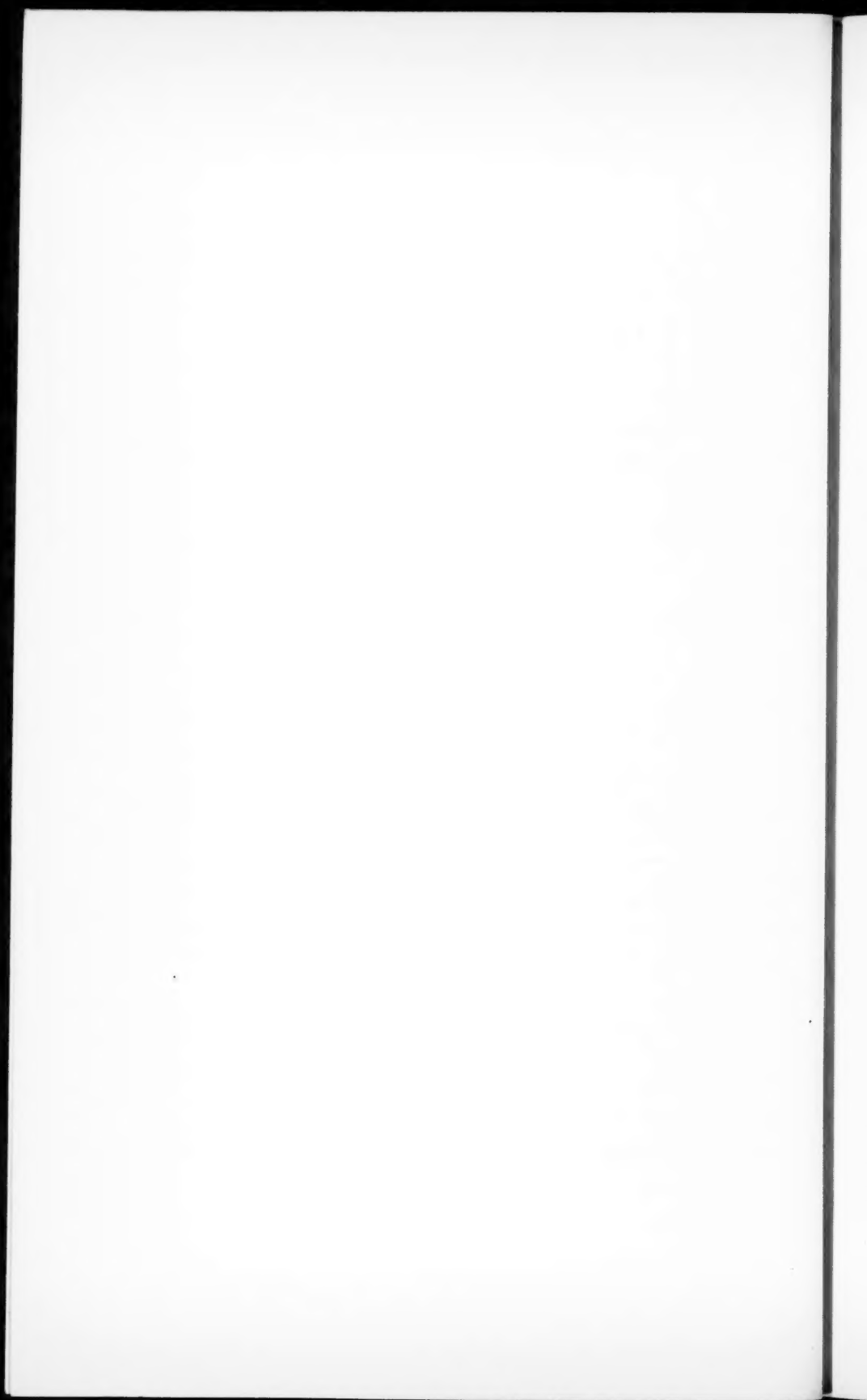
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"NOR HEED THE RUMBLE OF THE DISTANT DRUM"	<i>Herman A. Spindt</i>	5
DETERMINANTS OF COLLEGE CHOICE	<i>John L. Holland</i>	11
THE NATURE AND FUNCTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION	<i>Lucille Allen, John J. Geise, Ben Euwema</i>	29
A CURE FOR WHAT AILS US	<i>William Craig Smyser</i>	33
DEMOCRACY IS PAINFUL—BUT	<i>Carter Davidson</i>	39
TOWARD A SYSTEM OF EVALUATION IN ADMISSIONS WORK	<i>Samuel R. Sapienza</i>	41
STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE VS. PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITY OF THE FACULTY	<i>Hugh S. Brown</i>	49
FANATICISM DISQUALIFIES A STUDENT TEACHER . . .	<i>M. M. Chambers</i>	58
A FACULTY RECRUITMENT PROGRAM	<i>Joseph F. Zimmerman</i>	60
A NEGLECTED ELEMENT IN SUPERIOR STUDENT PROGRAMS	<i>Robert H. Shaffer</i>	66
EDITORIAL COMMENT		69
BOOK REVIEWS		72
IN THE JOURNALS		101
REPORTED TO US		107
REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS		114
AACRAO—TREASURER'S REPORT, 1958-1959		121
PLACEMENT SERVICE		126

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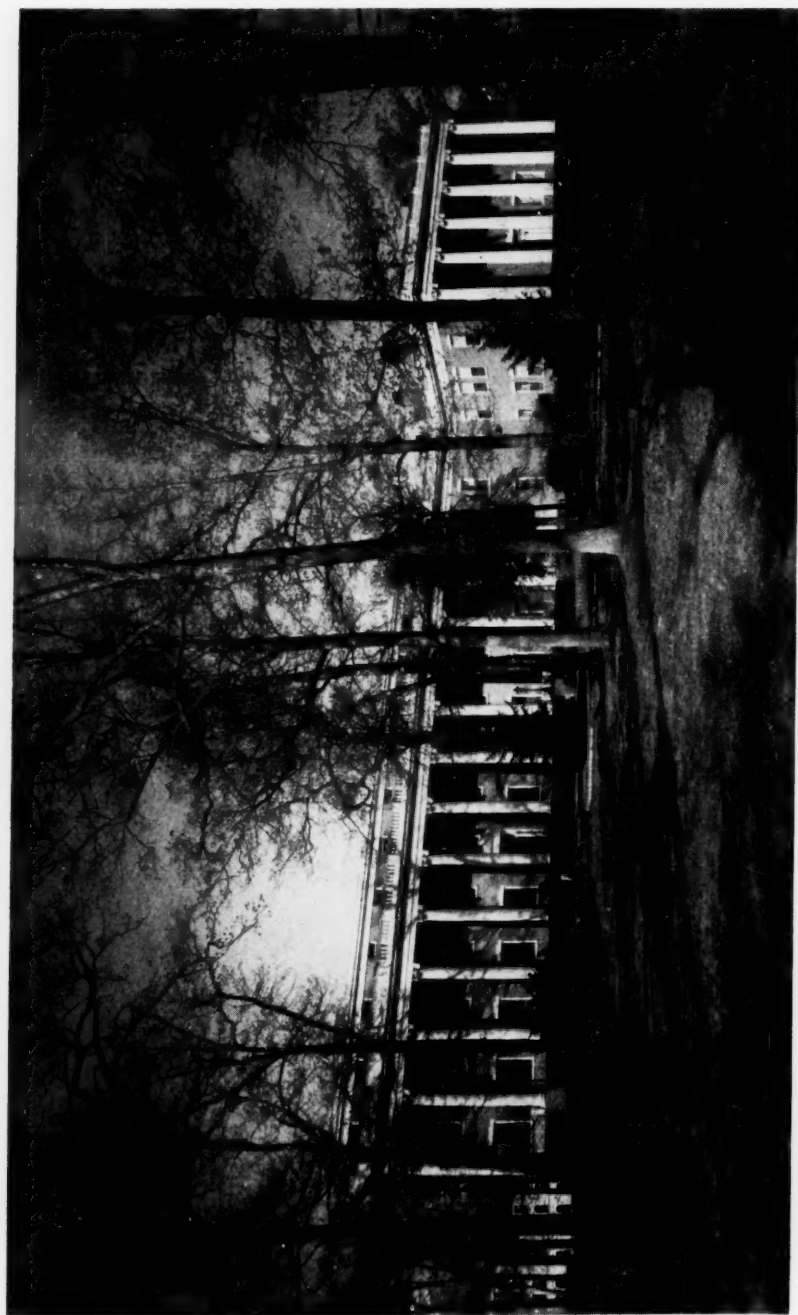
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DREW THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY was chartered by the state of New Jersey in 1868 in Madison, New Jersey. Up to the present time it has continued to function as a Methodist Seminary, but in 1928 a college of liberal arts was added and the name of the institution was changed to Drew University. The University became coeducational in 1943. A graduate school was added in 1955 although graduate work was offered before that time.

The Administration Building, Mead Hall, was originally a mansion and still retains the architectural excellence of buildings of the early 19th century. The Rose Memorial Library, the gift of Mr. and Mrs. Lenox S. Rose, a modern and completely fireproof building, was constructed to match, in exterior architecture, the Administration Building. In addition to the usual reading and reference rooms, the library has a photographic laboratory, a fine arts room, and seminar and typing rooms. The book collection totals over 230,000 volumes.



ROSE MEMORIAL LIBRARY AND MEAD HALL, DREW UNIVERSITY

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THE JOURNAL *of the* American
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"Nor Heed the Rumble of the Distant Drum"*

HERMAN A. SPINDT

ONE WHO has been either long or short on experience as a registrar or admissions officer may well question the title of this presentation. It comes, of course, from Omar Khayyâm, as the fourth line of a rather cynical stanza:

Some for the glories of this world; and some
Sigh for the prophet's paradise to come:
Oh, take the cash and let the credit go
Nor heed the rumble of the distant drum!

One who has no poetic sympathy with Omar the tentmaker, or Fitzgerald his more than sympathetic translator, might merely say to pay no attention to the greener grass on the other side of the fence. Yet one who pays no attention to the all-inclusiveness of the past may miss, in part at least, the realism of the realist or the statistic of the statistician. So one who has the necessity before him of making a speech to realists and cynics, such as I have previously found this audience to be, must of necessity ask what of the things that concern registrars and admissions officers is partly truth, more than half truth, all truth. When one examines the title, "Nor Heed the Rumble of the Distant Drum," one finds not truth but the possibility of truth, for one who has listened to many drums questions whether *near* or *far* is a

* Presented as presidential address at various Regional meetings.

fair measure of truth in the rumble of drums. The near may be more nearly true than the far.

Social and political life of the present time is subject to statistical analysis but not to the absolutes of science or mathematics. In a field that is subject to statistics rather than $2 + 2 = 4$, one gets generalizations that usually are only partly true. The "rumble of distant drums" is one of these generalizations, plausible, pleasant whether distant or near, truth occasionally, half-truth frequently, a complete lie seldom or never. Whether one heed it or pay no attention to it, the rumble of a drum has a pulling power that belongs not merely to a generalization but also to a slogan, to a word or combination of words that carry will to action made up less of conviction than of conversion. One must beware of such words or combinations of words.

Our history and our politics are full of such words, sometimes true, sometimes half-true, sometimes with little or no truth. The warning question is, does it tend to convert to action or merely tend to convince as to its own truth? The "Full Dinner Pail" of the Republicans in 1896 is only partially balanced by the "Cross of Gold, Crown of Thorns" of Bryan's speech to the Democratic Convention. "Tippecanoe and Tyler Too" is 100 per cent conversion, no per cent conviction. Of varying shades are the "Square Deal" of Theodore Roosevelt, the "New Deal" of Franklin Roosevelt, the "Fair Deal" of Truman, and the "New Freedom" of Woodrow Wilson. Closer to the emotional and intellectual definition of the political issue of the times is the trilogy of Andrew Jackson, John C. Calhoun, and Daniel Webster:

Our Federal Union: It must be preserved.

Our Federal Union: Next to liberty, most dear.

Liberty *and* Union, one and inseparable, now and forever.

Of a slightly different type, but certainly one of which we should be wary, is the statement that claims for itself self-evidence, obviousness, that kind of certainty that is not open to question, discussion as to its limitation, or indeed as to definition of its essential meaning. In the minds of Webster, Jackson, and Calhoun, the word "liberty" had different meanings, but was the one word not open to discussion or definition. Bismarck's "nach Canossa gehen wir nicht!"; Wilson's "the world must be made safe for democracy"; and Jefferson's "We hold these truths to be self-evident" are equally statements of principle so emotionally complete that they are not intellectually arguable.

In a time in which education is increasingly a subject of slogan, precept, and generalization, it behooves us to be wary, careful, and exact in our thinking and in our public and private expression of opinion.

Lest one think such exact thinking and expression is easy, let us look for a moment at the "distant drum" type of thinking and expression in educational matters. There are, first, the generalizations about character:

Pope's "'Tis education forms the common mind
Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined."

Or *Proverbs* 22:6: Train up a child in the way he should go; and when he is old he will not depart from it.

Both good, and probably true, statistically, but can they be applied to individuals with any degree of probable truth other than a percentage of probability? The influence of slogans becomes apparent in the strength of "wisdom hath builded her house, she hath hewn out her seven pillars."—Where else can one find a statement that for centuries limited the liberal arts to seven, the trivium and the quadrivium? Where can one find a statement that more effectively limited the discussion of things intellectual, or more determinative of curricular policy? Of course, one who has the habit of speaking frequently in public might do well to heed other statements in *Proverbs* or in the following book of *Ecclesiastes*:

"He that keepeth his mouth keepeth his life, but he that openeth wide his lips shall have destruction."

"The tongue of the wise useth knowledge aright, but the mouth of fools poureth out foolishness."

"He that hath knowledge spareth his words."

"Even a fool when he holdeth his peace is counted wise, and he that shutteth his lips is esteemed a man of understanding."

"Be not rash with thy mouth."

And then that ever constant adage, honored by students everywhere in the performance if not in the profession:

"And much study is a weariness of the flesh."

But to return to our "distant drums," to which, you will remember, we were not to give attention, merely because they were "distant"—so with some of the slogans and generalizations of education:

"He who can, does; he who can't, teaches."

"Teach the child, not the subject."

"Youth nowadays is soft" (or unmannerly, or what have you?).

"Promotion should be based on intellectual accomplishment only."

(What about the older misfit that completely prevents learning in a group in which he has been held back?)

"That ain't the way I learned it."

Bad words—educationist, progressive, integration, vocationalism

Good words—liberal arts, liberal education

Questionable words—general education

Did you ever read a more scathing comment on unintegrated pedantry than in James Russell Lowell's *Fable For Critics*:

"It would be endless to tell you the things that he knew,
Each a separate fact, undeniably true.
But with him or each other they'd nothing to do;
No power of combining, arranging, discerning
Digested the masses he learned into learning."

If we are to move from the slogan or questionable generalization to statements of truth on which action should be based, we need to analyze as exactly as possible the problems we face. What need we to bear in mind in the field of education? Here is a list—I almost said self-evident:

1. Individual differences in students: abilities, needs, interests, social and intellectual backgrounds.
2. Institutional differences: what is true in one college may not be true in another.
3. Schools (and colleges) are instruments of society, for the preservation and improvement of the society.
4. The biggest error that can be made in 1958 is to imagine that higher education will be permanently exempt from the kind of blind and unreasoning criticism that hit the high schools in 1957.
5. The need of the hour, in fact, of any hour, is for less assertion of opinion and more careful and scientific study in regard to education, and for exact and careful statement of ascertainable truth in regard to education; we need to be as scientific about education as we are in regard to atomic energy.

In our quite limited fields, what are the things we need to study, about which we must not listen to the charm of drums, distant or

near, about which we have a special responsibility to know and speak the truth? Here again a list:

1. Validity of our entrance procedures, whether from American high schools, American colleges, or foreign countries.
2. Knowledge and understanding of the purposes and procedures of other segments of our educational system.
3. Trends in enrollment, both as to types of students and as to numbers.
4. Economical and effective working procedures in our offices.
5. The meaning of statistics and the problem of how to keep ourselves and our offices human rather than automatons dealing with the "statistical person."
6. Space utilization.
7. Effective reporting procedures, so that our faculties and presidents will understand essential facts.
8. Your own special institutional problems!

In seeking the answers to these special responsibilities we must look in two directions, the distant and the near. What can we learn from others, what must we learn for ourselves?

In the matter of what we can learn from others, again a list, a list of professional activities of registrars and admissions officers acting in concert in our national association:

1. The publication of *COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY*, one of the best publications devoted to a study of the problems of higher education.
2. The development of understanding and good working relations with other segments of education, especially the high schools and junior colleges.
3. Improvement in evaluation of domestic and foreign student credentials.
4. Improvement in procedures involving best use of our buildings, i.e., space utilization.
5. Improvement of procedures of transfer of students from one institution or state to another: transcript adequacy, study of student migration, validity of admissions policies and procedures, credit to be given on transfer, etc.
6. Improvement of our relations with government agencies and educational organizations of importance to our own institutions.
7. Improvement in the management and operation of our offices, involving such items as catalogues, office equipment, and office management.

A complete list? No, but a list extensive enough to give reason for our national and regional associations. By study and exchange of experience, certainly we can improve, but I return to one of the fundamental ideas about education, the fact of institutional differences. What may be true in one college may not be true in another—you should indeed heed the rumble of the distant drum, but as you heed it, be sure it booms for you and your college. Check to see that it does! You cannot be sure that the research of other institutions or of the national associations will fit your college. Find out what is true about your college and then beat your own drum.

Determinants of College Choice*

JOHN L. HOLLAND

THIS REPORT, the third of a series of studies designed to explore how students select undergraduate colleges, relates student choices of college to a number of personal and cultural forces which preliminary studies have suggested are meaningful correlates of choice. The present study confirms the general hypothesis derived from preliminary studies: namely, that different types of colleges attract different kinds of students with characteristic patterns of academic abilities, vocational goals, educational values, personalities, and family backgrounds.

The findings are based on a 92 per cent questionnaire return from National Merit Scholars and one or both parents, and a 61 per cent return from a one-sixth random sample of the total group of Certificate of Merit winners and parents. Both the Scholars and the Certificate of Merit group (near-winners) participated in the 1957 National Merit Scholarship program. Questionnaires were sent to students and their parents before the fall term of 1957. The students also took the California Psychological Inventory, a personality inventory; and the Chicago Inventory of Beliefs, an attitude scale.

Since the student samples are fairly representative of the finalists in the 1957 National Merit program, they probably approximate the most academically talented portion of the high school senior population. The representativeness of these samples with respect to the colleges which they plan to attend is not known.

For purposes of this study, "institutional choice" is described by categorizing the selected college in each of the following classifications: (1) more popular versus less popular, (2) high versus low Knapp-Goodrich index for scientific productivity for male samples, and high versus low rank Knapp-Greenbaum index for female samples,¹ (3) religious versus nonreligious affiliation, (4) public versus private control.

The first classification represents the choice of a college where

* This study was partially supported by the National Science Foundation and the Old Dominion Foundation. I am indebted to Dr. Donald L. Thistlethwaite and Miss Laura Kent for their constructive reviews of this paper.

¹See references 6 and 7.

National Merit Scholars and Certificate of Merit winners tend to concentrate, or its opposite, the choice of a college excluded from this group. The list of "more popular" colleges is identical with that used in a preliminary study (4) and includes the following institutions:

For Men

California, University of
 California Institute of Technology
 Chicago, University of
 Columbia University
 Cornell University
 Dartmouth College
 Duke University
 Georgia Institute of Technology
 Harvard University
 Iowa State College
 Massachusetts Institute of Technol-
 ogy
 Michigan, University of
 Notre Dame, University of
 Princeton University
 Purdue University
 Rice Institute
 Stanford University
 Wisconsin, University of
 Yale University

For Women

Barnard College
 Bryn Mawr College
 Carleton College
 Chicago, University of
 Colorado, University of
 Cornell University
 Duke University
 Grinnell College
 Indiana University
 Michigan, University of
 Mount Holyoke College
 Oberlin College
 Radcliffe College
 Smith College
 Stanford University
 Swarthmore College
 Washington University
 Wellesley College
 Wisconsin, University of

This criterion of popularity is given additional meaning by another report (5) which shows that the parents of the present samples regard 15 of these 19 colleges as the "best colleges" in the United States. A study by Thistlethwaite (10) indicates that 14 and 15 of the 19 popular colleges for men and women respectively are also found among the 38 institutions offering the greatest number of scholarships to Certificate of Merit winners in the first annual program. Furthermore, concentration in these institutions has occurred in at least one other national scholarship program (8).

For males, the second institutional classification was obtained using the Knapp-Goodrich index, which ranks colleges according to their production of scientists listed in *American Men of Science*. The highest-ranking 50 institutions on the index (6) were those included in the high rank group; the low rank group includes those institutions ranking 51 or more. For the female samples, the Knapp-Greenbaum

index of scholarly productivity, which gives the rate at which a college produces students attaining fellowships or Ph.D.'s, was used (7). The third and fourth classifications (Religious-Nonreligious, Public-Private) were obtained by using a standard reference (13).

Using these four institutional classifications, the student's choice of college was correlated with his questionnaire responses and inventory scale scores. The results are summarized in the following sections. The magnitude of the relationships found in this study are probably underestimated. The student and parent samples are very homogeneous with respect to many variables and classifications. Most of the students major in science. Their scholastic aptitude scores place them in the top 2 per cent of their high school classes and their test score variation is about half of that usually found for entering college freshmen. Similar test score elevations and accompanying restrictions in range of test scores exist for many of the distributions of scores on the CPI and Inventory of Beliefs. Parental characteristics also appear to be restricted in range. The majority of parents are college graduates and have incomes above the national average. In addition to these sampling factors, the use of the phi coefficient as a measure of correlation usually underestimates the actual correlation, since the upper limit of phi is reduced when dichotomies depart from a 50-50 split. In the present data, the high rank-low rank, public-private, and religious-nonreligious dichotomies are markedly unequal. For all of these reasons, it is highly probable that more extensive samples of students and parents or the comparison of college against college would increase the size of the relationship shown in the following tables.

In interpreting the four kinds of choice, the reader should also note their intercorrelation due to the overlapping nature of the categories. For example, the majority of the more popular institutions are also private; nonreligious institutions tend to be public; and high rank institutions are largely private.

INSTITUTIONAL POPULARITY

The student characteristics which are associated with the selection of a more popular institution are summarized in Table I. Since the more popular institutions are those in which talented students tend to concentrate, these results presumably reveal some of the personal characteristics which affect this kind of choice.

TABLE I
CORRELATES OF TALENT CONCENTRATION IN AMERICAN
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (STUDENTS)

Correlates	Merit Scholars		Near-Winners	
	Boys (N=568)	Girls (N=200)	Boys (N=448)	Girls (N=186)
1. Student Reasons for Choice ^a				
Best College I know of	.35	.21	.22	.17
College of high prestige	.29	.15	.19	
Good faculty	.13		.17	.40
High academic standing	.13	.20		.31
Good research reputation	.33		.19	.19
Good athletic program	.18	.17	.16	
Best college for intellectual development	.11	.16	.16	-.15
Low cost college	-.17		-.30	-.29
Close to home	-.25	-.27	-.21	-.31
Religious college	-.15	-.29	-.12	-.23
Small college	-.34	-.22	-.23	-.24
2. Scholastic Aptitudes				
SAT—verbal	.11	.16	.14	
SAT—mathematical	.15	.16	.19	
3. California Psychological Inventory				
Capacity for status	.18	.17	.12	
Achievement via independence	.15		.09	
Intellectual efficiency	.14			
Psychological-mindedness	.14			
Flexibility			.14	
Dominance	.12			
Social presence			.09	
Good impression	.11			
4. Inventory of Beliefs (Non-stereotypy)	.13	.21	.15	.20
5. Satisfaction with Choice	.23	.21	.18	.21

NOTE.—Only phi coefficients which are significant at or beyond the .05 level are shown in this and succeeding tables.

^a In this table and tables 3, 5, and 7, only student explanations which are significant for at least 3 of the 4 samples are included in order to condense these data.

Table I indicates that students selecting more popular institutions have distinctive explanations for their choice. Their rankings of 19 explanations for their choice reveal that they place most importance on items such as "best college I know of," "college of high prestige," "good faculty," "high academic standing," "good research reputation," "good athletic program," and "best college for my intellectual development." In contrast, the choice of a less popular institution is associated with a desire for a small, religious, low-cost college which is close to home.

The student's choice of a popular college is related to his having

greater verbal and mathematical aptitudes as well as a number of other personal qualities which are suggestive of greater potential for achievement. These qualities include more capacity for status, achievement via independence, intellectual efficiency, psychological-mindedness, flexibility, dominance, social presence, good impression, and non-authoritarianism (non-stereotypy).² Although these relationships are statistically significant, they average only .15.

Since some of these personality variables have significant correlations with SAT scores, tests were made to estimate the effect of scholastic aptitude on the correlations obtained between personality scales and type of college choice. In general, corrections by means of partial order correlations produced only negligible differences.

Table I reveals that students of more popular colleges express greater satisfaction with their choice than do students selecting less popular institutions. This relationship is statistically significant for all four samples. The selection of a more popular institution is also positively related to student opinions that they are now attending the college offering the *best* training in their major field. This relationship is statistically significant for only the male samples.

Although the majority of these students plan on scientific careers, there is a significant relationship between career and institutional choice. Male Merit Scholars selecting more popular colleges more frequently major in the natural rather than the social sciences ($P < .01$). Both male Merit Scholars and male Certificate of Merit winners of more popular colleges aspire to higher level degrees (Ph.D. and M.D.) than do students of less popular institutions. These trends are, however, statistically significant only for the Certificate of Merit sample.

The parental and background characteristics associated with the student selection of a more popular institution are presented in Table II. Parental rankings of a series of desired goals of college training indicate that the student choice of a more popular institution is positively related to parental notions that a college education should develop the mind and intellectual abilities and teach the student how to enjoy life. Parents of children going to less popular schools say that a college education should help the student make a desirable marriage or prepare for marriage.

²More explicit interpretation of the CPI and Inventory of Belief scales is provided in the following references (1, 9).

TABLE II
CORRELATES OF TALENT CONCENTRATION IN AMERICAN
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (PARENTS)

Correlates	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars (N=768)	Near-winners (N=634)
1. Valued Institutional Goals		
Develop mind and intellectual abilities	.16	.13
Enjoy life	.10	.09
Prepare for marriage		-.11
Desirable marriage	-.10	-.09
2. Image of Ideal College		
National versus local reputation	.20	.15
High-cost versus low-cost	.16	.17
Public versus private		-.12
Coeducational versus single-sex	-.09	-.12
Close to versus away from home	-.15	-.17
Small versus large	-.22	-.12
Religious versus nonreligious	-.30	-.21
3. Cultural and Economic Factors		
Books in home ^a	.10 ^b	.18 ^c
Fathers' education	.10	.17
Mothers' education		.14
Family income	.15	.18
Future student income (son)	.21	.11

^a Reported by students; consequently, correlations for both male and female samples were obtained. Remaining information in table obtained from one or both parents so that only one correlation is reported per sample. ^b= boys, ^c= girls.

Parents were asked to describe the ideal college for their children by indicating their preferences by means of a series of paired alternatives. Student choice of a more popular college is associated with parental desire for a large, private, nonreligious, single-sex, high-cost college, with a national reputation, located away from home. The choice of a less popular institution is related to the opposed qualities of small, public, religious, coeducational, low-cost college with a local reputation, located close to home.

The number of books in the home, the level of fathers' and mothers' education, and family income are positively related to the choice of a more popular institution. The income parents would expect their son to be making ten years after college if he were to be considered "successful" is also positively associated with institutional popularity.

In summary, the choice of a more popular institution appears to be the function of high socio-economic status and many of its correlates.

Parents of students in this group have high incomes, are well-educated, and emphasize institutional goals which are largely congruent with their status. Their children reflect parental values and qualities for they have more scholastic ability, plan to take higher-level degrees, and are characterized by personality variables which suggest achievement potential, flexibility, and capacity for status. Their expressed preferences for large, high-cost, high-quality, nonreligious institutions located away from home suggest their high status background. The choice of a less popular college indicates the opposed cluster of attributes, including low status, education, income, etc.

INSTITUTIONAL RANKINGS

The relationships between student characteristics and the choice of an institution of high rank on the Knapp-Goodrich index (males) or Knapp-Greenbaum index (females) are shown in Table III.

Table III indicates that students choosing high rank colleges base their choice on "high academic standing" and "small college." Girls selecting high rank institutions tend to have more academic aptitude than girls selecting low rank institutions, but only two of the four relationships for girls are statistically significant. For boys, academic aptitudes are unrelated to this choice.

The relationships between personality variables and choice shown

TABLE III
CORRELATES OF INSTITUTIONAL RANKINGS (STUDENTS)

Correlates	Merit Scholars		Near-Winners	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1. Student Reasons for Choice				
High academic standing		.22	.10	.18
Small college	.30	-.17	.27	
2. Scholastic Aptitudes				
SAT—verbal				.17
SAT—mathematical		.16		
3. California Psychological Inventory				
Sense of well-being			.10	
Socialization	-.08			
Psychological-mindedness		.21	.09	
Flexibility	.10	.18		
Good impression			.10	
4. Inventory of Beliefs (Non-stereotypy)	.12	.28	.13	
5. Satisfaction with Choice			.15	.18

in Table III suggest that the choice of a high ranking institution is positively associated with sense of well-being, psychological-mindedness (sensitivity to others), flexibility, good impression, non-stereotypy, and is negatively associated with socialization (propriety). Although most of these relationships are not found in more than one sample, together they consistently suggest that high ranking institutions attract students whose personality scores are more indicative of scholarly potential than are those of students attracted to low-ranking institutions.

The choice of a high ranking institution tends to be related to satisfaction with choice, since two of the four student samples reveal significant positive relationships. Further, for both male samples, high rank is also significantly correlated with students' belief that they will receive the *best* possible training in their major field.

Students also differ with respect to their desire for advanced training and their preference for a pure or applied scientific major. The male Merit Scholar and male Certificate of Merit groups in institutions with high ranks have a significantly higher percentage of concentration in pure science majors (85.7 and 57.4 per cent), as opposed to students in low rank institutions (53.9 and 39.5 per cent). This choice is also related to aspirations for high level degrees. Seventy-six per cent of the male Merit Scholars and 67 per cent of the male Certificate of Merit winners selecting high rank institutions plan on higher level degrees, whereas only 60 and 53 per cent of these groups selecting low rank institutions aspire to high level degrees. These differences between the high and low rank students are significant beyond the .01 and .10 per cent levels for Merit Scholar and Certificate of Merit samples, respectively. For females, both of the above relationships are negative for all samples.

The parents of students attracted to colleges with high ranks value learning how to enjoy life, and developing mind and intellectual abilities. The parents of students at colleges of lower rank place less emphasis on these institutional training goals. See Table IV. The parents of students selecting colleges of high rank conceive of the ideal college as a small, nonreligious, private, coeducational college with a national reputation. The choice of a low ranking institution is associated with opposed characteristics.

The selection of an institution of high rank is related to family socio-economic status, but the relationships are less frequent than

TABLE IV
CORRELATES OF INSTITUTIONAL RANKINGS (PARENTS)

Correlates	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars	Near-Winners
1. Valued Institutional Goals		
Enjoy life	.08	.09
Develop mind and intellectual abilities	.08	.08
2. Image of Ideal College		
Small versus large	.12	.12
National versus local reputation	.10	
Coeducational versus single-sex	.09	
Public versus private	-.11	
Religious versus nonreligious	-.13	
3. Cultural and Economic Factors		
Books in home		.12 ^a
Fathers' education		
Mothers' education	.09	.16
Family income	.08	
Future student income (son)		

^a For parents of male Near-Winners only.

those found for the more popular-less popular dimension. High rank choices are also positively related to the number of books in the home, mothers' educational level, and family income. No significant relationships exist between choice and fathers' education, or between choice and expected future income for son.

In addition to the findings shown in Table IV, the parents of students for the high rank-low rank classification authored the questionnaires in varying proportions. A single Parent Questionnaire was sent to each family to be completed by either parent, or both parents. A comparison of the distributions of parental respondents was negative for all the classifications except high rank-low rank, in which case the parents of students going to high rank institutions completed the questionnaire together more frequently (46.2 per cent) than did the parents of students attending low rank institutions (34.6 per cent). Parent questionnaires were completed more frequently by the mother alone for the low rank group (30.5 per cent) than for the high rank group (20.7 per cent). These differences are significant beyond the .05 per cent level. One obvious interpretation is that both parents of students going to high rank institutions take an active role in the education of their children.

To summarize, the selection of an institution with a high rating on the Knapp-Goodrich or Knapp-Greenbaum indexes conforms to a pat-

tern indicative of less concern with externals and more concern with intellectual values. Mothers have a high level of education, and both parents express preferences for a small college which will develop the student's intellectual abilities. Their children too desire a small college, and one which has a high academic standing. The personality scores of these students imply capacity for achievement and creativity. This interpretation is reinforced by their preferences for pure rather than applied science and their relatively long term academic goals. In contrast, the choice of an institution with a low rank is related to personality patterns less favorable for intellectual achievement.

Some of these findings about the differences in personality found between students selecting high rank-low rank institutions are indirectly supported by a similar study by Heist (2), using a sample of Merit Scholars and Certificate of Merit winners for 1956. Heist finds statistically significant differences between the students attending the top ranking 50 institutions on the Knapp-Greenbaum index and all other liberal arts institutions. High ranking institutions have students who are more socially introverted, more complex in their outlook or perceptions, more original, and less authoritarian than students attending low rank institutions.

PRIVATE VERSUS PUBLIC COLLEGES

In selecting a private college, students stress reasons such as "small," "liberal arts," "religious," "best college I know of," and "best college for my intellectual development." The choice of a public college is related to less valuation of these reasons and a greater emphasis on "low-cost," "close to home," "desirable location" and "coeducational." See Table V.

The choice of a private institution is associated with high verbal aptitude for three of the four samples. Mathematical aptitude is not, however, significantly related to choice.

The phi coefficients in Table V suggest that private institutional choice is positively related to the CPI variables of achievement via independence, femininity (boys), masculinity (girls), flexibility (girls), and is negatively associated with sociability and social presence (girls). The Inventory of Beliefs also implies that private institutions attract boys with a flexible outlook. These findings should be regarded as only suggestive since they hold at best for only two of the four student samples.

TABLE V
CORRELATES OF PRIVATE INSTITUTIONAL CHOICE (STUDENTS)

Correlates	Merit Scholars		Near-Winners	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1. Student Reasons for Choice				
Low-cost college	-.34	-.37	-.46	-.31
Close to home	-.29	-.25	-.32	-.25
Desirable location	-.14	-.15	-.19	-.16
Coeducational	-.21		-.21	-.40
Best college for my intellectual development	.11		.11	.20
Best college I know of	.13	.18	.10	
Religious college	.09	.22		.20
Liberal arts reputation	.29		.23	.17
Small college	.27	.24	.30	.26
2. Scholastic Aptitude				
SAT—verbal	.13		.23	.21
SAT—mathematical				
3. California Psychological Inventory				
Achievement via independence	.11	.14		
Femininity	.10	-.14		
Sociability				-.14
Social presence				-.14
Flexibility		.14		
4. Inventory of Beliefs (Non-stereotypy)			.15	
5. Satisfaction with Choice	.13		.17	

Table V reveals that the choice of a private college is related to satisfaction with choice. This trend is similar to that observed for the more and less popular dimension of choice. In the case of boys, private rather than public college students also believe that they will receive the best training. These differences in belief are significant beyond the .001 level for both male samples, but are not significant for the female samples.

Except for the male Merit Scholars, differences in occupational and training goals for this dichotomy are generally insignificant. Both male samples differ significantly, however, when their science goals are categorized as "pure" or "applied." In this case, selection of a public institution is associated with the applied sciences (60 and 67 per cent) as opposed to the pure sciences (40 and 33 per cent) for the Merit Scholars and Certificate of Merit winners respectively. Conversely, private colleges attract more students with pure science majors. This result is consistent with an additional finding: namely, private colleges attract males with aspirations for high level degrees. This relationship is, however, significant only for the male Merit

TABLE VI
CORRELATES OF PRIVATE INSTITUTIONAL CHOICE (PARENTS)

Correlates	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars	Near-Winners
1. Valued Institutional Goals		
Lead to higher income	-.10	-.08
Vocational or professional training	-.12	
Desirable marriage	-.08	
Develop mind and intellectual abilities	.07	
Develop moral standards	.08	
Learn how to enjoy life		.09
2. Image of Ideal College		
Private versus public	.49	.40
Coeducational versus single-sex	-.19	-.22
Close to versus away from home	-.16	-.13
Religious versus nonreligious	.08	
High versus low cost	.13	.14
Small versus large	.22	.26
3. Cultural and Economic Factors		
Books in home	.09 ^a	
Fathers' education	.10	.13
Mothers' education		.12
Family income	.10	.12
Future student income (son)	.10	

^a For parents of male Scholars only.

Scholars. The parental correlates of choice are presented in Table VI. Student choice of a private institution is positively related to the following parental goals for college training: "learn how to enjoy life," "develop moral standards," and "develop mind and intellectual abilities." In contrast, parents of children with public college choices rate these goals somewhat lower and rate the following goals higher: "lead to higher income," "vocational or professional training," and "desirable marriage."

The parental conceptions of the ideal college for the private college student include such characteristics as private, single-sex, away from home, religious, high-cost, and small. For male Merit Scholars and Certificate of Merit winners, the choice of a private college is also related to parental preferences for institutions with liberal arts (62 and 57 per cent) rather than scientific reputations (30 and 35 per cent). A reversal of preferences was obtained from the parents of students selecting public colleges: only 27 and 37 per cent conceive of the ideal college as having a liberal arts reputation and 61 and 48 per cent prefer a college with a scientific reputation. These differences are

both significant beyond the .001 level. For girls, institutional reputation is not related to choice.

The choice of a private rather than a public college is associated with higher cultural and economic background factors, including more books in the home, higher levels of parental education, higher family income, and higher anticipated student income.

In summary, the selection of a private institution is correlated with a high socio-economic status pattern. Parents have high incomes, advanced education, and many books in the home. They see college training as a way to develop moral standards and intellectual abilities, and to learn how to enjoy life. Their ideal college is a high-cost institution which is private, single-sex, away from home, and noted for its liberal arts training. Their children reiterate these goals and values in explaining their selection. Unlike students selecting public colleges, they aspire to higher educational degrees, have more verbal ability, and are characterized by personality traits which are associated with higher academic achievement.

RELIGIOUS VERSUS NONRELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

In selecting a religious college, students report that the most important determinants were small size and religious affiliation. In contrast, the choice of an institution without religious affiliation is related to the following items: "good physical facilities," "college of high prestige," "good research reputation," and "good athletic program." See Table VII. Table VII suggests that boys selecting religious colleges may have less academic ability than those selecting nonreligious colleges. For girls, there is no relationship between choice and academic aptitudes.

The CPI and Inventory of Beliefs suggest that the choice of a nonreligious institution is associated with the following variables: capacity for status, good impression, social presence, psychological-mindedness, intellectual efficiency, achievement via independence, flexibility, tolerance, and non-authoritarianism or non-stereotypy. On the other hand, the choice of a religious institution is associated with responsibility and with lower scores on the variables listed above. Note that most of these findings pertain largely to the male samples.

For the male Merit Scholar sample only, satisfaction with choice, college major, and level of degree sought are significantly related to the religious-nonreligious dichotomy. Boys attracted to religious

TABLE VII
CORRELATES OF RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONAL CHOICE (STUDENTS)

Correlates	Merit Scholars		Near-Winners	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1. Student Reasons for Choice				
Religious college	.43	.45	.34	.36
Small college	.26	.27	.22	.17
Good athletic program	-.22	-.16	-.16	
Good research reputation	-.30		-.21	-.31
College of high prestige	-.20	-.20	-.17	-.17
Good physical facilities	-.27	-.15	-.24	-.16
2. Scholastic Aptitude				
SAT—verbal			-.12	
SAT—mathematical	-.15			
3. California Psychological Inventory				
Capacity for status	-.14			-.14
Good impression	-.10			-.14
Social presence	-.13		-.09	
Psychological-mindedness	-.23			
Intellectual efficiency	-.17			
Achievement via independence	-.12			
Flexibility	-.11			
Tolerance	-.08			
Responsibility			.09	
4. Inventory of Beliefs (Non-stereotypy)	-.16		-.17	
5. Satisfaction with Choice	-.14			

rather than nonreligious institutions express more dissatisfaction with their choice of college, major more frequently in social rather than natural sciences, plan more frequently on lower degrees, and give lower ratings of the quality of training they expect to get at their colleges.

The parental characteristics and related background factors which are correlated with the student choice of a religious institution are shown in Table VIII.

An emphasis on moral standards and religious values characterizes the parents of students making religious choices. The parents of students going to nonreligious institutions said that college training should lead to a higher income, make the student a more cultured person, teach him how to enjoy life, and develop his mind and intellectual abilities.

The ideal college, according to parents of children selecting a religious institution, is a small, private, religious college which has a local reputation and is close to home. These parents also express a greater preference for a liberal arts orientation than do the parents of

TABLE VIII
CORRELATES OF RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONAL CHOICE (PARENTS)

Correlates	Parents of	
	Merit Scholars	Near-Winners
1. Valued Institutional Goals		
Develop moral standards	.14	.18
More cultured person		-.10
Lead to higher income	-.10	
Enjoy life		-.10
Develop mind and intellectual abilities	-.08	-.10
2. Image of Ideal College		
Religious versus nonreligious	.41	.37
Small versus large	.20	.15
Close to versus away from home	.13	.10
Public versus private	-.14	
National versus local reputation	-.24	-.13
3. Cultural and Economic Factors		
Books in home	-.12 ^a	
Fathers' education		
Mothers' education		-.08
Family income		
Future student income (son)	-.14	-.12

^a For parents of male Scholars only.

students selecting a nonreligious college. This difference is statistically significant only for the male Merit Scholars.

The choice of a religious institution is negatively related to the number of books in the home, mothers' education, and concern with the future financial status of sons. However, only the latter finding holds for all samples.

In short, the choice of a religious institution reveals a student-parent pattern which is dominated by religious values. Parents believe that the ideal college is a small religious college close to home. They feel that the development of moral standards is a more important goal of college education than the development of intellectual abilities. Religious students, like their parents, selected their college for its religious affiliation and small size. Compared with students choosing nonreligious institutions, these students may have less academic ability, plan less frequently to take high level degrees, and have personality traits which are more indicative of a lower achievement potential.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The following statements summarize the major findings and their implications.

1. The selection of an undergraduate institution is probably the outcome of a complex set of forces including student goals, abilities, and personality, which interact with parental values, education, socio-economic status, and parental images of the "best" and ideal college.

Like many personal decisions, the choice patterns found here are probably not readily amenable to change because they are grounded in cultural and personal development. The study also suggests that the concentration of scholarship recipients in more popular institutions results in part from a belief that the more popular colleges are the best. This hypothesized relationship is supported by several lines of evidence. First, students selecting more popular colleges are more satisfied with their choice than are any other student group. Second, parents believe the more popular colleges are "best in the United States" (5). They make these evaluations for the most part independently of where their children plan to attend, or must attend. For many students and their parents, then, the receipt of scholarships assists families in acting upon these beliefs. This hypothesis is reinforced by retrospective student reports in which they indicate that their scholarship helped them to attend a better institution (11). The concentration of intellectual talent may also be furthered by the disproportionate number of scholarships offered by more popular institutions (10) and by a variety of other institutional characteristics and activities including age, geographical location, size of national alumni organizations, formal and informal public relations, and similar influences.

2. The evidence for institutional choice strongly suggests that colleges receive talent supplies which differ not only in their abilities for academic work but also in their personalities and values; consequently, it is likely that there is a great range of potential for various kinds of achievement (academic, scientific, economic, religious) among student populations. And of equal importance, these divergent populations are subject to different parental pressures for different goals and achievements.

This analysis of college choice suggests a need to reconsider educational goals and practices and perhaps to develop institutional programs in terms of a particular talent supply and its accompanying parental goals and values. In addition, the evidence for motivational differences among student populations indicates the need for further study of these personality variables and their influence upon institutional productivity.

In an earlier report, it was suggested that the high rank colleges in the Knapp-Goodrich and Knapp-Greenbaum indexes received a greater number of talented students than would be expected in terms of their size (3). In view of the present study, it appears that these colleges may also receive students whose personal qualities are more conducive to potential achievement and creativity than do schools of lower rank. In this study, the private, high rank, and nonreligious institutions probably enroll a disproportionate share of students with outstanding scholarly and scientific potential, and the parents and students for these classes of choice make explicit some of the institutional qualities previously assumed to stimulate achievement—small size, private control, high academic standing, nonsectarian, and liberal arts reputation. The poor showing of public and religious institutions in terms of this index can be accounted for in some measure by their less promising student populations whose goals and parental influences are more practical, less academic, and more diffuse than those of private and nonreligious colleges. Since this new evidence suggests that these productivity indexes may be attributed in part to student and parent characteristics rather than to institutional qualities alone, the devaluation of public, religious, and low rank institutions resulting from the past acceptance of this index does not appear warranted.

In a similar fashion, Traxler's index of institutional quality (12) based on male graduates listed in *Who's Who in America* may be in error since it fails to equate institutions for talent supply. Ninety-one per cent of the top ranking institutions (indexes of less than 100) on the Traxler index are private colleges. Eleven of these 67 colleges are also found among the 19 colleges defined as the "more popular" institutions in the present study; consequently, these results can be attributed partially to the relatively high achievement potential and socio-economic status of the students selecting this set of institutions rather than to educative values of these institutions alone.

It is not possible, however, to estimate from our data the relative contribution of student qualities and institutional qualities to student postcollege achievement. Estimates of the relative contributions of the student and his institution would require a comparison of differences in rates of producing Ph.D.'s accounted for (a) by indexes of student quality (including both intellectual and motivational traits), and (b) by indexes descriptive of faculty and administrative behavior.

Practically, these reinterpretations of previous productivity studies

suggest that students and parents should be cautioned that achievement and personal productivity may be as much a function of student activity as it is of institutional training. Although institutions may facilitate achievement, there is no evidence to indicate that they do so independently of their students and the parental influences which these students bring to colleges and universities.

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The Nature and Functions of Higher Education*

LUCILLE ALLEN, JOHN J. GEISE, BEN EUWEMA

FOR THE purposes of this report, *higher education* can be regarded as the liberal education provided by an undergraduate college, whether it be an independent institution or a constituent part of a large, complex university.

Higher education serves a different function for each of the two large groups into which the students attending liberal arts colleges are divided. For the majority of students in college, higher education is the capstone of secondary education and the end of formal schooling; the baccalaureate degrees received by the members of this group represent the completion of formal education for citizenship in the world's greatest democracy as well as for life generally. For those who continue their formal education to obtain the specialized professional and graduate training which is more and more required by our complex society, higher education has two functions: preparation for citizenship and life generally, and the provision of a foundation for professional and/or graduate training in one of the professions or major areas of organized enterprise.

These relationships of the liberal arts college with the secondary school, on the one hand, and the professional and graduate schools, on the other, create several problems of the first order. For the secondary school—liberal arts college relationship, three can be mentioned:

1. Review of the secondary-collegiate programs as a continuum, for the purpose of designing a sequence of educational levels whereby the content, skills, and experience required for the most effective work at each level have been provided by a preceding level.
2. As a result of such a review, the programming of work in the successive educational levels so as to (a) eliminate duplication, (b) fill in gaps, (c) strengthen the intellectual curiosity common to young people, and (d) thereby produce an over-all program for the secondary and collegiate years which is best suited to the capacities and needs of the somewhat better-than-average members of this age group.

* A report to the Pennsylvania Council of Academic Deans, October 13, 1958.

3. An imaginative and skillful development of a supplemental program or set of programs whereby superior and very able students in secondary schools can be freed of the established requirements of the basic program in order that each may progress at the rate of which he is capable.

On the other hand, the college-professional school relationships present two quite different problems:

1. Identification of a set of achievement criteria which, when met, will assure that a student to whom a baccalaureate degree is awarded is prepared to undertake successful work in one of the areas of professional or graduate training, areas which are now characterized by the rapid increase of knowledge and a growing complexity in our social structure.
2. The development of a program or programs whereby superior and very able students in college can be freed of established requirements so that each can progress at the rate of which he is capable.

Higher education is *higher* than primary or secondary education, and it is *lower* than, or at least different from, the graduate and professional levels. Perhaps the simplest, and catchiest, way of phrasing our problem is to ask: *What's higher about higher education?*

Ideally we can assume that, whereas lower education is concerned with the acquisition of facts and certain basic skills, higher education is concerned with philosophy, "the love of wisdom." Practically, it means somewhat less: for example, the grade-school pupil should learn the rudiments of English vocabulary, grammar, and sentence-structure; the college student should learn how to write cogently, correctly, and responsibly. The student in the lower schools should be taught the basic facts of American and world history; the college student should learn to interpret events, more or less like a philosopher. The grammar and high school pupils are taught to perform certain operations in mathematics; the college student should begin to think like a mathematician.

These examples should suffice. Higher education, when it is actually *higher*, has certain characteristics:

1. In so far as possible, it deals with First Principles. The typical question is *Why?* not *What?*
2. In so far as possible, it brings the student into contact with primary sources. The student does not ask, What did Professor Jones say Newton thought? He does ask: What does Newton himself

say? The instructor may interpret, and probably should, but the student must learn to make up his own mind.

3. It is critical, or sophisticated, in its approach. While it would be perfectly proper for a sixth-grader to say, "It's so because teacher says it is," in a college student this would be inexcusably naïve. The student should acquire a disinterested approach and the habit of independent thought.

As late as thirty years ago, the university or college student had a far simpler time of it than now. In most liberal arts colleges—which is to say, in most colleges—he chose merely between the various majors available in liberal arts. If, for example, he chose chemistry, he might get a course or two in applied chemistry, but no more; if he chose economics, he might get a single practical course in accounting, but no more; if he chose psychology, he might get a single course in child psychology, but probably no more; and if he chose English, he might get a course in journalism, but probably only one.

Nowadays, he faces a bewildering number of choices; more and more, his choices are narrowly vocational. Even in so-called liberal arts colleges, there is still a lusting after the fleshpots of Egypt: vocational courses or directions in physics, chemistry, mathematics, psychology, English composition, logic, etc. This is not all bad, perhaps, but it does shift the focus from liberal education to something else. Our present serious shortage in basic science is a case in point.

Now it stands to reason that all of this vocationalism is bought at a price. In education, we have a sort of *reductio ad absurdum*: literally hundreds of courses in *how* to teach, very few (if any) in *what* to teach. This provides us with the unhappy view of football coaches and experts in guidance (characteristically not guidance in anything in particular) teaching mathematics, the basic sciences, English, etc.

This vulgarization of the concept of education stems from our national preoccupation with the practical. But the aims of education are not properly practical at all. Our constant emphasis upon the practical value of an education is unfortunate and vitiates the real, "impractical," but far greater values. The immense value of a liberal education is what it can do for the human spirit. And since many, if not most of the ad hoc courses currently offered in our colleges are designed to train, rather than educate, we may have managed to discard the baby with the bath water.

The present preoccupation with General Education is a mixed bless-

ing. On the one hand, it attempts to restore in a few brief courses the liberal aspects of education which were lost when education took its present vocational turn; on the other hand, it vulgarizes liberal education by assuming that it can be achieved in anything less than four full years.

How do liberal and general education differ?

1. In depth. General education attempts to do in one course what used to be done in several. Thus, e.g., a course in the humanities attempts to introduce the student to the fields of art, philosophy, literature, music, etc. Formerly, this would have constituted the whole curriculum. There is virtue in this, of course, but it is a virtue born of necessity. It is like viewing a country from an airplane as compared with walking through it. Both methods get you there, but one gives you a far better idea of the countryside than the other. The airplane view is better than nothing at all only if it does not fill you with the conceit of wisdom—only if you do not assume that you know the country simply because you have once flown over it.
2. In specialization. General education, as the word indicates, is general and not specialized. But higher education, in almost any sense of the word, implies specialization: i.e., a detailed, meticulous analysis of the subject. There is a world of difference between a course in music appreciation and a careful, disciplined investigation into the history and literature of music. The former is important if you can get nothing else, but only the latter is "higher." Mastery, or a reasonable degree of mastery, of an entire field is a necessary part of higher education.

What can be said of the content of higher education?

We should strive to be neither too conservative nor too revolutionary. The only certain answer that can be made is that the educational content should be intellectual. Obviously, plumbing and typing and repairing airplanes are not intellectual pursuits and, therefore, have no place in the college curriculum. On the other hand, principles of sanitation and economics and aeronautics undoubtedly do belong in the college curriculum.

The principal concern of the college should be the universe in its physical, chemical and biological aspects and human society in its historical, philosophical, and functional aspects. The objectives are to make the student feel at home in the universe and society into which he has been born and thus to increase his sophistication or wisdom about the universe and society at large.

A Cure for What Ails Us*

WILLIAM CRAIG SMYSER

I AM SURE no one will quarrel with me if I start out by observing that we are living in a very difficult period. The complexities of modern life are so great, and the future is so gravid with possible disaster, that no thinking person can avoid the feeling that he is under perpetual tension. There are moments when I find it difficult to be optimistic about what the future holds for us as a nation.

And this, I hasten to add, is not because of the menace of Communism or the pressures of the Cold War. I think we are far more menaced from within than from without: indeed, the menace from without would be no menace at all if we were to restore the muscles and the sinews that we are in danger of losing because we have allowed them to become wasted with insidious disease.

This disease has many symptoms. One of them is juvenile delinquency. One of them is our feverish quest for what we call a good time. One of them is our scorn of intellectual excellence: the term "egghead" carries a derogatory overtone that is probably not directed at intellectuals anywhere else in the world. One of them is our avid acquisitiveness for more and more gadgets: our naïve notion that high standards of living are inseparable from the possession of automobiles and electric appliances and colored bathroom fixtures.

Some one—perhaps it was Confucius—has said, "If you wish to make a man happy, do not add to his possessions, but take away from his desires." Whoever said it gave voice to a profound truth which most Americans of our day are utterly incapable of understanding. From the radio, the newspapers, television, the magazines, and the billboards, we are under constant, hammering bombardment designed to augment our possessions, not diminish them, to add to our desires rather than to our contentment. Without question, here lies one of the reasons for continuing tension and pressure. Who can feel relaxed if he is always hot after the acquisition of some new device to save him labor, or to entertain him, or to whisk him from place to place? These things are pleasant to own; they bring luxury and gratification

*An address given to the Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, December 11, 1958.

into humdrum lives. But they are *not* the Highest Good, as most of our compatriots seem to think. We have a dreadful national tendency to confuse ease and luxury with happiness; to identify possessions and pleasures with the Good Life.

Recently—I think it was in an article by Mr. J. Edgar Hoover—I saw a reference to a study that had been made of the things teen-agers wanted most out of life. At the top of the list they placed "a good time," and just below it, "security." These teen-agers are hardly to be blamed; they get such ideas from their parents. But it is a disquieting fact that such desiderata, which used to be seen as results of the Good Life, now are confused with successful living itself. The old virtues of service, of satisfaction in achievement, of work and accomplishment and family solidarity and public spirit, seem far less indispensable. This is another symptom of the nameless disease that is sapping American life.

My home is about six minutes' walk from a school. The only street crossing on the way is protected by the school crossing guards. Yet I have a neighbor who will drop whatever she is doing in the middle of any afternoon to go and drive her twelve-year-old daughter home, even in good weather. Nobody thinks this is unusual: we have become so conditioned to the notion that you should never walk when you can ride, that we have almost lost the art of walking. We think nothing of taking a two-ton car to convey a 150-pound person a few blocks down the street. I am as guilty of this as any of you, yet I do not like to think what this avoidance of physical effort will do, in the long run, to the physical and even to the moral fiber of our people. There is nothing immoral about riding when you'd rather not walk, but the whole picture is one of softness and self-indulgence which can be the opening stage of decadence. Busy executives used to justify their addiction to golf by the plea that the exercise was good for them. Now they ride over the course in electric golf-buggies, or at the very least they drag their clubs about on little carts. Exercise has come to be a very lame pretext.

I believe that all of these things are unhealthy symptoms. They reveal a people to whom fun is more important than achievement; by whom success is valued chiefly for the possessions and pleasures it makes possible; whose formula for happiness consists in the avoidance of effort and the ownership of large quantities of plate glass, chromium, plastics, and machinery.

There is nothing ascetic about my personal philosophy of life, yet I am disturbed by these things I am observing. If there are any historians among you, I am sure they will agree that no nation has survived very long after its people became soft, pleasure-loving, self-indulgent, and undisciplined. And that nation which ceases to respect and cherish trained intelligence is doomed. Unhappily the America of our day shows signs of extreme susceptibility to these viruses. Our enemies are confidently awaiting the downfall they think they foresee for us.

Now, I should have no excuse for intruding on your time today with these dismal forebodings if I did not think there is a remedy, and a remedy in which those of us who devote our lives to education can play a most important part. It would be fantastic to claim that in education lies the solution to all our problems, but there is no begging the fact that the solution *starts* with education, just as the problems themselves started with a faulty conception of the function of education.

Some thirty years ago there was a general movement on the part of the colleges to discard subject-matter requirements as a criterion of admission, and all but a minority of us have fallen into that pattern. Whether it was cause and effect or whether it was accident, this movement coincided roughly with the efforts of well-meaning but vastly misguided educators to "modernize" the curriculum of the secondary schools. Something called "Life Adjustment" was to take the place of learning. Discipline was to be supplanted by freedom of choice. No child—and this is the crux of the matter—was to be forced into subjects that he found difficult or distasteful. The schools were to serve up to the children whatever courses the children or their parents demanded. No child was to be held back until he had mastered the work of any grade: if he was a drag on his fellows in the fifth grade he was to be moved along with them to the sixth, where he would be even more a drag. Suddenly, then, these "progressive" educators found that the brake which had been imposed upon them by college requirements was no longer there. They seized their new freedom with whoops of joy.

You know the result as well as I do. Far too many of our students now come to us with a minimal core of solid learning, to which they have added all kinds of frills which can be designated as education only because they were acquired in the high schools. You can find

courses in Campcraft, and Outdoor Cookery, and Beauty Culture, and Baton-Twirling. I have heard of courses for cheer-leaders. History is supplanted by Social Studies, in which quite often the students acquire, as Arthur Bestor says, "a smattering of knowledge about everything in general, but a clear and usable knowledge of nothing in particular." Physics, Chemistry, and Biology are replaced by General Science, usually a watered-down survey of superficial scientific phenomena. American History is usually studied, but it is isolated from the logical stream of historical development by the total neglect of Ancient and European History. There is a decline, not only in the percentage but in the actual numbers of students who study Mathematics and Foreign Language. And there is an appalling deterioration in the general level of spoken English.

We are all familiar with the uproar set up over the book *Why Johnny Can't Read*. And we all know perfectly well that, in spite of vociferous denials on the part of some secondary school people, the plain fact remains that all too many of our students come to college without sufficient reading skill to enable them to keep up with college work. We all know, too, how high a percentage of them come to us with little or no mathematics beyond arithmetic, with no solid laboratory science, no foreign language, a superficial overview of the social sciences. Many of them have one or more of these deficiencies; a few of them have them all, so that it is difficult to understand what they did to keep busy during their four years in high school—until you think of the volume of the so-called "activities." There is no denying these facts: they are too well-known to everybody who deals with college freshmen. Nor is there any way to gainsay the clear evidence that too many students keep away from all courses which they find difficult or distasteful, and that all too many of the high schools are perfectly willing to let them do it, ignoring the fact that you do not build trained leadership that way—or, for that matter, you do not even develop literate citizens.

A few months ago *Life* magazine ran a series of articles on American public education. It was a serious, factual presentation of the subject. It revealed the kind of shortcomings I have been talking about, and some others. It was disquieting, but to those of us who have been dealing with high school graduates it revealed little that we did not already know. The thing that was really appalling about it was not the articles themselves, but the reception they received from many sec-

ondary school people. *Life* was accused of being "inimical to education." The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, with a fine disregard for freedom of press and speech, made a misguided and wholly unsuccessful effort to persuade its members to threaten cancellation of their subscriptions to *Life* and its sister publications. The commotion that was stirred up proved nothing except the extraordinary blindness of many educators to the weakness of the school system, and their deplorable resistance to clear thinking about it.

The situation is still not beyond the control of the colleges. We can restore a measure of sanity to the school systems of the country by the simple process of once again demanding solid courses as the basis for college admission. This would only indirectly help the students who are not preparing for college, and who have a right to sound vocational training, but it would immeasurably improve the quality of our freshman classes, and it is from them that most of our future leadership must come, anyway.

Dean Chamberlain, of Columbia College, has proposed the sort of change I have in mind: to stiffen entrance requirements drastically, and insist that incoming freshmen possess much of the knowledge that now must be fed to them in time-consuming basic courses. "Preference should be given," he says, "to the applicant who has completed, prior to entrance, four years of mathematics and science, who can read a foreign language, and whose command of English is demonstrated. These courses can be efficiently taught and learned in secondary school, and the time of the college student can be used more profitably on other subjects if he enters college already capable of handling these basic subjects and skills."

I am not naïve enough to suggest to you that herein lies the solution to all our country's ills or the cure for all her weaknesses. It is not so simple as that. But certainly here is a first step which will point the way in the right direction and will make all subsequent steps easier. If "the boy is father to the man," as he certainly is, then the boy who has been taught to think straight, to face up to difficulties and not shrink from distasteful duties, is father to the citizen with a sense of values beyond the ephemeral; a habit of clear thinking and of pride in accomplishment: in short, the type of citizen who alone can rebuild the moral fiber of this nation and re-establish the sturdy self-reliance which we like to think of as the hallmark of the American.

As I said a minute ago, this will not solve all our problems. It will not eliminate juvenile delinquency. It will not cure us overnight of our tendency to self-indulgence or our materialistic attitude toward possessions, or our avoidance of physical effort. Yet in the long run it will be laying the groundwork for bringing all of these things to pass, for the inculcation of habits of work and discipline and sober thought in the formative years will inevitably be reflected in future characters. We are reaping now the harvest from the seeds we have sown for thirty years; if we sow a better seed we can expect a better harvest.

Many years ago Horace Mann asked whether the youth in our schools were being educated in the light of their private interests only, or with regard to the great social obligations and privileges that await them in adult life. Unhappily, in this generation our answer would have to be that their individual preferences have been the overriding consideration. We have listened to talk about "pupil-centered schools," and have fallen in love with the sound of those words, forgetting that, in the last analysis, schools and colleges exist for the benefit of society, not for that of the pupil. Our great American educational system grew out of a clear realization on the part of our forebears that no nation can grow great, no nation can even survive, without a succession of trained and educated leaders. We have lost sight of the fact that you do not raise up leaders by giving them superficial courses and allowing them to side-step responsibilities and avoid hard work. You do not develop leadership among adolescents who think a good time is the chief goal of life. To the extent that we have lost sight of these truths, we have failed in our obligation to the society which supports us.

Democracy Is Painful—But

CARTER DAVIDSON

THE SALARY scales which are published by the majority of colleges and universities indicating the low salary, the top salary authorized, and the median salary can be almost meaningless, since very few of the scales indicate how many members of the faculty there are at each rank and how many of these are at the various salary levels within the scale. A college like our own, for instance, which has more than 50 per cent of its teaching faculty in the rank of full professor and only 5 per cent as instructors finds that a comparison of its salaries with those of colleges where only 20 per cent are at the full professor's rank and 50 per cent are instructors can be quite misleading. Unfortunately, a good many institutions have secured authorization from their Boards to publish salary scales with the top salaries in each rank quite high, but upon inquiry we discover that no faculty member is receiving the top salaries and that the highest salary actually paid is very close to the bottom. I heard of one institution the other day which had authorized a salary scale for the full professor of from \$8,000 to \$12,500, but that the highest salary actually being paid was \$8,500.

The Union College chapter of the AAUP asked some years ago for a list of the actual salaries being paid to the Union faculty for the basic nine months teaching period, exclusive of evening, extension, or summer teaching and exclusive of contributions to annuities, Social Security, or other fringe benefits. They asked that I list all the actual salaries being paid during the year, but without names. After some discussion with the Finance Committee of our Board of Trustees, I was authorized to provide this information, and since that time we have been furnishing the entire faculty with such a listing of approximately 110 salaries by the four ranks. Upon an examination of this list, a faculty member can see where his own salary puts him in the picture, how many of his rank are above him, how many below him, and how many are in the various other ranks. He can see that although the median salary of the full professors may be \$9,000, there are actually several who are receiving \$14,000 and a large number receiving \$10,000. Although I have occasionally received letters from staff members complaining that they felt their length of service justi-

fied their ranking higher in the list, the number of such complaints has been small.

Each February, when we are considering the salary changes for the following year, the chairmen of the various departments meet with the chairman of their division (Humanities, Social Studies, Science, or Engineering) and draw up recommendations for salary increases for the various members of their staff, listing the members of each department in order of their recommendation. The four divisional chairmen bring these recommendations to a meeting with the Dean of the College and the President, and these six people constitute a committee to formulate recommendations on the category of need and desert in which all the members of the staff belong. This committee then meets with the Committee on Salaries and Personnel of the Board of Trustees and spends a long session going over the recommendations one by one. The Committee on Personnel then recommends actual salary adjustments to the Board of Trustees based upon the amount available as determined by the Finance Committee. Under this democratic procedure every department chairman knows the salaries of all the individual members of his own department and has some idea of the salaries of most of the individuals in the other departments of his division. The divisional chairmen know all salaries of all members of the teaching staff, and no increases are recommended without a practically unanimous vote of the six man committee.

The same procedure is used in the matter of renewals of contract, terminations of contract, placement upon permanent tenure, and promotions in rank. In these cases the procedure is modified in that all full professors in each division participate in the discussion and vote on these matters within their division.

This faculty control and knowledge about salaries has apparently been good for faculty morale on the Union campus rather than injurious to it. I do not wish to imply that this method will work beneficially on every campus, but it is certainly worth looking into.

Toward a System of Evaluation in Admissions Work

SAMUEL R. SAPIENZA

INTRODUCTION

THE SITUATION in undergraduate and graduate admissions offices is rapidly taking on some of the drama and tension of a bases-full, two-out, last-inning, come-from-behind situation in baseball. Something has to happen. The batter is the applicant who wants to get on (in); the fans are alumni and friends; the umpire is *you*, the admissions officer. You must not be swayed by this tingling combination of factors. After all, a strike is a strike, and there is an objectively determinable strike zone. There are rules, also. These add more objectivity, possibly to the extent of overriding the din of the crowd clamoring for their hero. But here the analogy ends. Who ever heard of a baseball game that had to end with just so many runs? Every admissions officer knows that there really is *a number* in his little game. Thus, you are trying to umpire with all the fanfare and circumstance of a ballgame without the flexibility of an indefinite score.

Is there any strike zone delineated in admissions, or rules of the game? None, except what the institution wants to outline or impose. Thus, the school can set up its own objective rating system and make it consonant with the prevailing circumstances. In this process, though, all schools admitting new students must consider certain factors in the candidate that appear to be fairly common. While what is said here is premised on experience gained in admitting students to a graduate business school, many of the observations would be equally applicable to undergraduate admissions situations. Equally, an undergraduate or graduate applicant might find points of interest in what is said to help him in seeking admission.

If the institution admitting students has a capacity of 100 openings and only 50 people apply, the admissions office may well accept most of the people applying. Indeed, there may be pressure to accept applicants who are not qualified in order to keep the teaching staff busy and to raise some revenue. If the institution has openings for 100 new students and 200 applicants want to come, the whole scene changes. No longer is it a case of accepting practically everyone.

Someone must compare one applicant with others. This comparison implies that one undergraduate institution will be ranked with others, one's test score will be placed alongside the other's, grades from one school will be evaluated against the other's, and so on. This process of relating one applicant to another so that each applicant takes a position in a large group is a difficult problem and one we shall address here.

This discussion centers on certain factors that may be evaluated in this process of comparing one applicant with another. It is important to stress that the weight of the factors chosen as important can be shifted to align them with the admitting institution's objectives.

COMMON FACTORS

What are these factors that are expected to be found in the applicant? What is this evidence that can be requested? Categories can be set up of this information as follows:

1. Average of grades
2. Major subject
3. Degree-granting institution
4. Aptitude examination
5. Other factors
 - a. Extracurricular activities
 - b. Expenses or money earned
 - c. Evidences of leadership
 - d. Work experience
 - e. Military experience
 - f. Statement of purpose
 - g. Letters of reference
 - h. Interview

These factors will be elaborated below, as was stated, from the limited perspective of a graduate business school. Obviously, other factors could be introduced, such as alumni relationships, and family or business ties.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF A POSSIBLE SYSTEM

One possible method is to set up a scoring system that gives the "perfect" applicant a maximum of 100 points. These points are earned by assigning weights to the various factors considered important and then examining the applicant to see how many he has

earned. Tolerable point limits can be marked off such as: scholarship material and definitely acceptable; highly desirable; acceptable; marginal and usually rejected unless some strong factor allows conditional acceptance; unacceptable.

This is just one possibility. The weights assigned can give expression to the school's particular needs in the students it desires. For example, if work experience is a prerequisite to class work, this factor can be given a heavy weight.

AVERAGE OF GRADES

Much like the biblical parable of the worker in the vineyard receiving a full day's wage for only a few hours' work, to the consternation of those who worked through the heat of the day, should the applicant be judged on a portion of his undergraduate work? Or should this judgment be based on an over-all average, or the "full day," as it were? There seems to be no sound reason why the applicant need be judged on his entire record. In fact, perhaps the latter part of his undergraduate record is preferable to help form a sound basis for decision.

In some cases the student starts off as a premedical student and switches over to history or some other field. Grades in the early years are likely to be colored by changes in major, adjustment to college life, intrusion of sports, or just poor management. Perhaps, then, as much as the first two years' work could be dropped and attention paid to the latter work only. The theory then would be that this represents the student purified of all foreign particles. This does not mean that his early years should be overlooked entirely. Continuous poor grades in such standards as English courses are significant, and should not be thrown out completely. Often, too, the whole transcript can be used as a frame of reference to determine a trend of performance. The full record, further, gives a profile of the applicant through an extended period and, where reliance can be based on the grades, exerts possible weightier influence on the final decision.

Some would argue that exceptions to particular courses should be taken in the calculation of averages. Thus, courses in religion, physical education, military science, or some commercial subjects such as typing, might be excluded. Since some of these courses are occasionally compulsory, the theory runs that they are not proper evidence of scholarship.

It appears impossible to set an absolute level of grades for admission purposes, for whatever level is chosen must be tied together with the major subject and the undergraduate school attended. Where weights are given to all factors to be considered in admission, grades will show many levels, probably on a numerical basis ranging from an absolute top to a minimal acceptance level.

MAJOR SUBJECT

There appears to be some ground to assert that some undergraduate majors are more difficult than others. This difficulty shows up in the student's grades. The rigorous, logical requirements of scientific courses often drives averages down. A major in chemistry may be averaged out at C. This level of performance represents no mean accomplishment, pointing up the idea that any arbitrarily set level of grades must give compensation to factors such as subject matter or else be self-defeating.

This is not to say that a major in English or history is as the students say, so uneuphemistically, a "gut" course. They are chosen, especially when the student anticipates graduate work, to fulfill limited objectives. No apologies need be made for these courses. They can be as stiff and demanding as the next. They are what each school makes them. The fact that they do not have long laboratory sessions affords some basis for the assertion that the scientific curriculum is more difficult. To some extent, the student of the sciences is confronted with a difficult quantum of subject matter and a demanding drain on his time.

The undergraduate major, accordingly, can be weighted to steer the admissions program a certain way. For example, the graduate business school can bias the weight against undergraduates coming from business schools. All this means is that if two students are apparently equally endowed, the graduate school can select the one trained as a liberal arts or scientific major over the business student in order to accomplish its objective. More emphasis can be given sciences, less to liberal arts, and little or no weight to business majors. The objective then could be that its facilities can be better used in training students who have little or no business training rather than those already the recipients of a degree in business.

DEGREE-GRANTING INSTITUTION

Perhaps greater caution should be shown in attempting to evaluate

institutions than in the foregoing discussion of subject matter. Here we touch on a sensitive area that is closely associated with both grades and subject matter. Is a degree from one school more worth-while than others? There must be some roll of excellence; but this roll is as unreachable as the book of judgment. Therefore, one has to improvise and set up some ranking, or "fly by the seat of his pants" and make judgments by intuition, or accept all degrees on the same basis and avoid the problem. Generally, the latter two can be discounted, especially if the number of applicants outruns the possible admittees. Caprice or whim must give way to some system.

This poses a major administrative problem in admissions. How does one judge the relative merits of different schools? One might even extend this to major fields within schools, and to individual teachers. Some reliance can be placed on past experience of students from particular schools as their record unfolds at your school. But here the sample may be small and completely untrustworthy. If the school draws applicants from all over the globe or all over the country, experience with a given school may have been nonexistent. Do you reject the applicant out of hand? Obviously not. Here is where the aptitude examination can be used as an aid. Insistence on a test gives a common denominator and *some* support to possible comparisons. "Some" is used here advisedly. Comparability is absent when some schools encourage only the better students to take the aptitude examinations, tending to increase the average score from that school. Further, the standard error in the test itself is often overlooked. In short, the list must be contrived from a combination of: experience with students from the several schools; aptitude examinations; accreditation by educational organizations.

Students coming from the higher-ranked schools would get an automatic benefit. This may sound grossly unfair to a student coming from an institution ranked inferiorly. But is such the case? If a student is given a certain weight for grades, the chances are that grades from the lower-ranked school will be relatively higher. Therefore, he would receive a relatively better score from this factor than would be obtained by the student from the higher-ranked school where grades such as A are difficult to obtain. Thus, under this system, an attempt would be made to compensate for factors that probably ought not to be taken at face value.

For example, two students coming from different institutions might

be ranked as follows: (where for grades 1 = A = 25, 2 = B = 18, 3 = C = 5 points weight)

Student	Grades	Weight Given Grades	School	Weight From Ranking List	Major Subject	Weight For Major	Total
A	1.5	20	X	2	Lib. Arts	2	24
B	2.2	17	Y	10	Math.	4	31

Student A, thus, would achieve only 24 points toward, let's say, a possible 100, and would be less well off than Student B who has built up 31. Looking at grades alone, Student A would seem more desirable than Student B. Simultaneous evaluation of multiple factors would show the opposite.

APTITUDE EXAMINATION

Each applicant should be urged to take an aptitude examination prior to action being taken on his application. The aptitude examination might be assigned a weight approaching that given to the undergraduate record, with high scores receiving relatively more weight and trailing off to where no credit is given for a low score. The test could be one of your own contriving, or one offered by the Educational Testing Service or any other testing group.

Applicants would be given a chance to gain acceptance even though their scores were not, say, equal to the mean average of all people taking the aptitude examination. The applicant would not be barred simply because of this factor. On the other hand, a high score would not necessarily assure him admission without the presence of certain credits from other factors cited above. The correlation of success in graduate business school with a high aptitude examination score is, unfortunately, not so positive that complete confidence can be placed on this measure. Perhaps we should be thankful that such is not the case. Important human traits such as persistence in application over an extended period of time, or drive in reacting to difficult tasks would be slighted. It should be noted here, however, that admission must be risked in order to give substance to the evidence that the applicant possesses such traits.

OTHER FACTORS

Clearly, what has been said up to now needs some dampening influence or a purely mechanistic admission program will result. No

one could be so presumptuous as to expect a mechanical approach to suffice.

Information regarding extracurricular activities, expenses or money earned, evidences of leadership or scholarship prizes, work experience, military service, and a statement of purpose may be elicited in the application form. Since some of these factors may or may not be present, or some of them may or may not be important to the school's objectives, it is evident that any weight assigned must give consideration to these possibilities. Therefore, by coupling together items so that the absence of one or so will not bring a penalty, a system might be devised to evaluate these factors. Naturally, the assignment of scores for achievement or recognition of the various factors will be a purely *subjective function*, even though use is made of an objective scoring system. An applicant who has had to work 30 hours a week in order to stay in undergraduate school ought, it appears, to get some recognition over the applicant who never had to work. Similarly, the applicant that gives a well-rounded discussion of what he hopes to achieve (statement of purpose) in graduate school ought to get some benefit over the one who simply states: "I want to come to your school because of its world-renowned reputation." One is trying to rationalize and plan, the other apparently only seeks a degree.

Letters of reference may be used to uncover points that may not be brought out elsewhere, or possibly confirm factors mentioned by the applicant independently. Thus, the applicant who, less than candidly, states that he earned 80 per cent of his expenses and board while at school is reduced closer to reality by the letter of recommendation stating: "Joe did not extend himself in school and his grades reflect only partial effort." The letter of recommendation that is filled with platitudes adds only bulk to the applicant's folder. Some control can be placed over this factor by furnishing forms or requesting specific questions to be answered.

Special mention should be made of the interview, also. The interview might be used to fill out any open spots that appear in the applicant's record. An interview conducted in a casual environment can give a general impression of the applicant, his ability to speak, his manner, his appearance—in brief, his social poise. The interviewer might rate the applicant and this score would then enter the over-all rating. The weight attached, however, to the interview prob-

ably ought to be low in value, for experience has proved that the polished applicant is not always equally groomed intellectually.

ASSOCIATION OF ALL FACTORS

Whatever the scoring or evaluating system, the applicant one day must be placed in competition with others seeking admission. Those that rank relatively high can be admitted with little doubt. Those that fall below acceptable limits can be rejected. It is the so-called middle group in the distribution that causes concern. Here, the applicants are not just acceptable or unacceptable; they are tinged with shades of grey. It is in this very area that the method of ranking discussed here will be most beneficial. At least there is the comfort of having considered the same factors in all cases. To this extent there is a basis for choosing one candidate over the other. The factors used can be discussed, also, so that the applicant or interested parties feel that equitable treatment was received. To the degree, however, that certain of the scores assigned to applicants for some of the factors rest on subjective decisions, the system offers no security or infallibility. But, then, whoever said an umpire (admissions officer) is infallible?

SUMMARY

A system for admissions that provides a basis for decision can be organized for any institution. The variables to be considered in admission can be assigned weights, depending on the objectives of the school, the teaching methods used, the experience of the school, and the availability of certain information.

The increasing pressure on admissions officers, graduate or undergraduate, makes it imperative that a systematic approach be taken to cope with this problem. While absolute certainty is an unattainable ideal in admissions work, practical certainty can be achieved in ranking applicants for admission. The din and uproar surrounding the umpire in the baseball analogy used earlier echoes repeatedly in the ears of admissions people—protesting alumni, rabid donors, irritated friends. Noise one can become accustomed to. The argument here has been that you can defend yourself against any aspersions about your degree of blindness to qualities purported to be present in applicants failing to gain acceptance.

Standards of Performance vs. Professional Responsibility of the Faculty

HUGH S. BROWN

FROM TIME to time and from institution to institution the academic world is disturbed by sharp differences of opinion between faculty and administration. While administrators fondly deny the existence of these two viewpoints there are many conditions associated with the development of our increasingly complex institutions of higher education which tend to sharpen the distinction between the two views.

There is little reason to believe that colleges and universities could have realized their present service to so many segments of society without the existence of able administrators. The necessity of developing "men of management" in institutions of higher education has however at times promoted a cleavage between administration and faculty. To perform as a real "pro" in the field of management of a complex enterprise inevitably entails for the administrator a restoration of his amateur standing in the field of learning, which remains the chief preoccupation of the faculty. Whenever viewpoints of these two groups conflict sharply on a matter of policy a disturbance is inevitable. The current controversy over merit rating in colleges and universities is a case in point. Because it will affect every member of the faculty, merit rating has many possibilities for setting the academic world in turmoil. Legally the trustees can insist on the execution of this or any policy by their administrative officers, but the enforcement of any policy which widens the gap between administration and faculty can result in little long-term gain to the university which the trustees are charged with governing.

In developing an efficient organization the business executive sees standards of performance as an indispensable adjunct to the profit motive. The business-minded trustee or administrator, while recognizing that the profit motive can hardly be applied to the university is, however, quite enamoured with the *efficiency* of the idea of standards of performance for each member of the organization. Already sensitive to past exploitation in the form of lower salaries than in other professional groups, the professor is likely to condemn merit rating as just another attempt to exploit him.

Conflicts over the introduction in an educational corporation of practices of a business corporation are by no means new. In the latter part of the 19th century, power in the governing bodies of colleges and universities began to shift from the clerical and educational interests to those of business and finance. The ideas of scientific management developing in the business and industrial world were reflected in the administration of colleges and universities. In the early years of the 20th century, writers like Veblen, Cattell, and Laski protested the government and direction of a scholarly enterprise by captains of industry.

Veblen (8), writing in 1916 attributes to the proponents of a businesslike organization the conception of a university:

... as a business house dealing in merchantable knowledge placed under the governing hand of a captain of erudition, whose office it is to turn the means in hand to account, in the largest feasible output.

In contrast Veblen insists that the university:

... is, in usage, precedent, and common sense preconception an establishment for the conservation and advancement of the higher learning, devoted to a disinterested pursuit of knowledge. As such it consists of a body of scholars and scientists, each and several of whom goes to his work on his own initiative, and pursues it in his own way. This work necessarily follows an orderly sequence and procedure. . . . but the system and order that so govern the work and that come into view in its procedure and results, are the logical system and order of intellectual enterprise, not the mechanical systematization that goes into effect in the management of an industrial plant or the financing of a business corporation.

Those items of human intelligence and initiative that go to make up the pursuit of knowledge . . . do not lend themselves to a quantitative statement and can not be made to appear on a balance sheet.

University administrators were not in agreement on the advisability of introducing business practices into the educational community. In his annual report for the year 1901-1902 President Harper (5), University of Chicago, said:

If an officer on permanent appointment abuses his privilege as a professor the university must suffer and it is proper that it should suffer. This is only the direct and inevitable consequence of the lack of foresight and wisdom involved in the original appointment.

The greatest single element for the cultivation of the academic

spirit is the feeling of security from interference. It is only those who have this feeling that are able to do work which in the highest sense will be beneficial to humanity.

On the other hand Chancellor Andrews (1), the University of Nebraska, writing on University Administration in 1906 said:

Universities show much diversity in dealing with professorial tenure, some enforcing the competitive principle more than others. It is not thought that a professor who has grown inefficient has a right to his place simply because he has wrought long for the institution, even if his service has been satisfactory. In some cases application of the competitive system appears cruel, and it may be now and then so in fact; but none who compare institutions where this procedure prevails, with those using the greatest clemency can doubt which is the juster practice on the whole and in the long run.

Many business men were critical of the colleges. Typical of these was Clarence F. Birdseye, a New York lawyer, and later editor of the *Encyclopedia of General Business and Legal Forms*. In 1907 in *Individual Training in Our Colleges* (2), he roundly criticized almost everything in the college sphere and two years later in *The Reorganization of Our Colleges* (3) proposed as a remedy to reorganize the colleges on "principles worked out by our great captains of industry."

In his opinion the college ideals and results were far below the best business practices and results. He proposed as the main remedy a "separate and splendid administrative department" which, using business methods and factory practices, would be "the salvation of the faculty." Each instructor was to be rated and measured as part of the plant, and then given as much care and consideration as necessary to keep the machinery in first class order and repair.

In 1910 The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, partly because of the existence in colleges and universities of new and large problems, and partly because of criticisms of the colleges and universities made during previous years by business men, engaged Morris Llewellyn Cooke to study the efficiency of several well-known universities. Cooke was one of the early specialists in organization and management of industrial establishments and the installation in them of improved methods based on scientific study of the results desired and processes involved. In 1910 colleges were talking about the same kind of problems as we face today: tremendous growth, prospective expansion, rising costs, urgent need for more money,

overburdened professors, increased need for specially trained men.

The Foundation published the results of Cooke's investigation in a 130 page report entitled *Academic and Industrial Efficiency* (4). Seeing the colleges and universities through the business man's eyes, Cooke said that the most notable feature of collegiate administration was the absence of uniformity or accepted standardization. The absence of any gauge of efficiency he proposed to remedy by using cost-per-student-hour. Cooke was amazed at the lack of functional management of the professors' time. His attitude toward individual efficiency is crystallized as follows: "guaranteeing to the professor the possession of his chair only as long as he remains the best man available." To determine who was efficient Cooke would resort to measuring and recording so that the market price of the professor would be generally known. The efficiency expert believed that failure to define and standardize working hours diminished the efficiency of the professors. The college professors, he said, "probably get less help out of recreation, taken in its broadest sense, than any other class of worker." Today's college professor would probably echo agreement. Throughout the report Cooke indicated his great admiration for the "snap and vigour" of the business administrator and appeared to find little of this in the academic world.

The report did not go unchallenged in the academic world. A few months after its publication President Maclaurin of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology writing on *Educational and Industrial Efficiency* (7), while acknowledging that the report was made by the Foundation in the spirit of good will, and indicating that it made a number of excellent suggestions which he said "are none the less excellent because of their lack of novelty," dismissed Cooke's prescription of cost-per-student-hour as having "absolutely no value." The point of view of a man "who is used to report on the efficiency of a glue factory or soap works" may have value but "whenever it touches the strictly educational field and gets away from the factory the trail of the amateur is all over it." Whereas Cooke constantly looked for the "equivalent mechanism" of the industrial world to apply to colleges, Maclaurin hoped that enlightened public opinion would "never permit us to forget that in all matters that are really vital to education there is no equivalent mechanism in the industrial world."

Cautioning that there are many forces already operating to entice the professor away from the educational world, Maclaurin felt that

over-estimation of the value of "snap and vigour" in education would only complicate the none too easy lot of the teacher and investigator. He illustrated the consequences of the "snap and vigour" treatment by describing a call by the superintendent of buildings and grounds, or other competent authority, on Mr. Newton:

Superintendent: Your theory of gravitation is hanging fire unduly. The director insists on a finished report, filed in his office by 9:00 A.M. Monday next; summarized on one page; typewritten, and the main points underlined. Also a careful estimate of the cost of research per student hour.

Newton: But there is one difficulty that has been puzzling me for fourteen years and I am not quite . . .

Superintendent: (with snap and vigour) Guess you had better overcome that difficulty by Monday morning or quit.

Late in the 19th century universities began to substitute ranks of assistant professor and associate professor for the varied collection of docents, tutors, associates, fellows, readers, and lecturers which along with professors made up the members of the faculty. No doubt this made the entering positions more attractive and gave the younger members some protection from the guild-conscious professors. This regularized competitive element was a reflection of a similar development taking place in business about the same time. Inevitably administrators rather than faculty took over the task of making promotions from one rank to another. This has become so much a part of college mores that it occasions little disturbance because it has been accompanied by protection of faculty members through various tenure regulations.

For various reasons trustees and administrators have of late been making pronouncements and setting policies which propose to make the college a more efficient machine by introducing merit rating into the picture. There appears to be little doubt that what is envisioned is different from established custom and is very closely related to the development of standards of performance for each position. Little attempt has been made to gauge faculty understanding and acceptance, and the rather injudicious choice of phrases in presenting faculty with a *fait accompli* has aroused faculty apprehension.

In this atmosphere misunderstanding develops. Viewpoints sometimes crystallize on nonexistent issues. Because tenure is mentioned in connection with evaluation some faculty members see in the proposal

the beginning of an attack on hard won tenure provisions.

Misinterpretations of what is meant by statements of policy abound. Most of the proposals can be seen from two angles: what seems perfectly logical to the business executive is seen by the faculty as not necessarily appropriate or practical in the academic field. What is seen by the administrator as being a good way of keeping faculty "on their toes" is interpreted by faculty, as one professor expressed it, as a good way of keeping them "on their knees."

The college professor has endeavored to hold to the professional ideal that his responsibility is to do the highest quality of work possible. While recognizing that some do not reach this ideal, he nevertheless sees interference with this concept in the enticement of monetary rewards for increased productivity. One of the major tasks of a college administrator has always been that of creating working conditions which make possible the development of this sense of professional responsibility. Any suggestion of an efficient machine driven by an administrator works steadily against this.

Trustees and administrators trying to raise all salaries to higher levels but able to do this only gradually, nevertheless try to give special rewards to those who have demonstrated unusual competence, and also to meet the offers to these men from other institutions. No doubt they feel this should give encouragement to many. Faculty interpret this as an attempt to dodge the real issue of raising all salaries quickly.

A simple proposal to reward demonstrated merit seems to have gone off in all directions. The factor of seniority is now to be discarded regardless of the fact that it has always been a recognized factor in the progression through the academic ranks. All the fringe benefits are set up to encourage people to stay at the institution and thus acquire seniority. Discarding seniority also means the abandonment of traditions of loyalty on the part of the faculty, and the former practice is a direct incentive to increased turnover.

Because of a shortage of college professors the traditional structure of academic ranks is undergoing rapid change. A recent study by Lindquist (6) indicates that in order to staff the institution there has been a rapid increase in the use of such practices as accelerated promotion, employment of new faculty less well qualified than formerly, employment of new faculty at ranks and salaries higher than formerly. Since administrative personnel can be appointed without consideration

of the relationship between salary and title, administrators have made the rather novel proposal that in making faculty appointments rank and salary be divorced, leaving professional ranks as a matter of professional competence, and using salary as simply the market price of the commodity. This appears to be more closely related to expediency than it is to merit. At one end of the scale it might make possible the realization of Cattell's dream that each university should have a few professors who because of their distinctive contributions to society are paid more than the president of the university. Faculty would applaud this but it would seriously disturb the business-minded hierarchy.

Unfortunately at the other end of the salary scale where many faculty are placed, the market price idea would not help individuals who have the greatest need. Surprising though it may be, the ethics of a profession are more closely related to the ideal of "from each according to his ability, to each according to his need" than they are to the "dog-eat-dog" competitive idea of the business world. To substitute monetary rewards for the ideal of professional responsibility would render little service to the college and university.

In most universities there is an element of secrecy about salaries received by individuals. This secrecy would likely be even deeper if full scale merit rating were employed. In colleges there is a strange lack of understanding that with secrecy goes suspicion which leads to many conjectures as to how salaries are determined. Colleges where a well-known salary schedule is in effect or where information as to salaries paid to individuals is not a secret, enjoy a noticeable lack of suspicion about administrative motives in determining salaries. Before increasing the present complexity of the salary structure by using merit increases, the faculty would like to see administrators make some attempt to explain the widespread variation which professors suspect is now present.

The practice of making the distribution of academic ranks depend on percentage allotment appears to trustees and administrators to be a combination of making "professor" mean something, and also protecting the budget. It strikes the faculty as being somewhat anomalous since the qualifications which describe the full professor seem to envision the kind of individual of whom no good university can have enough.

In line with existing tendencies in business it was logical for Cooke

and others in 1910 to propose functional organization of the faculty. There has been for many years a deep-seated conflict between the function of research and that of teaching. To promote greater efficiency it is often suggested that the two be divorced and that professors work largely at one or the other. One can admire the courage of administrators who now propose to change the professional outlook and tradition of over 200,000 members of the profession by substituting professors of research, professors of teaching, professors of counseling, professors of consultative services, etc., for the ideal of the university professor who feels responsibility in all the areas of service which society currently expects him to perform. No doubt division of labor is part of the production line but faculty are far from ready to agree that it is applicable to an educational institution.

One of the subjects not officially discussed is whether the trustees regard the faculty as employees of the administrators or as partners of the administrators in the conduct of the institution. If the faculty are regarded as employees business practices will prevail. If they are regarded as partners, much more consultation is called for than now exists. If the task of the administrator is to facilitate the performance by the faculty of the real functions of the institution then it is passing strange that no trustee or administrator has proposed that the *faculty* evaluate how well this responsibility is performed by the administrators.

The colleges and universities can hardly expect to be unaffected by conditions which operate in the society of which they are a part. Whether the attainment of the full possibilities of colleges and universities can be realized by moving closer to the business patterns of standards of performance for each job, or by greater attention to developing, to a higher degree, the feeling of professional responsibility on the part of the faculty, is a question not easy to decide. It would appear that both administrators and faculty need to give much more attention to the long-term results of policies favored by each. Any policy which lowers faculty morale will effectively limit faculty production. Likewise a lack of concern by the faculty for the efficiency demanded in the modern world will only retard the restoration of faculty salaries to a professional level.

The greatest danger in the present controversy lies in its possibility for greatly widening the gap between administrators and fac-

ulty. When this happens the students, for whom colleges and universities really exist, suffer. As Whitehead (9) puts it:

The whole point of a university on its educational side is to bring the young under the intellectual influence of a band of imaginative scholars. There can be no escape from proper attention to the conditions which . . . will produce such a band.

. . . the management of a university faculty has no analogy to that of a business organization. The public opinion of the faculty, and a common zeal for the purposes of the university, form the only effective safeguards for the high level of university work. The faculty should be a band of scholars, stimulating each other, and freely determining their various activities. You can secure certain formal requirements. . . . But the heart of the matter lies beyond all regulation.

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Fanaticism Disqualifies a Student Teacher

M. M. CHAMBERS

HAS AN outspoken atheist a right to be retained in a university course preparing him for service as a high school teacher? A negative answer is given by a Florida appellate court in the recent case of *Robinson v. University of Miami*, (Fla. App.), 100 So. 2d 442 (1958).

After graduating from another university, the student entered the Miami institution in 1952 to study secondary education. In 1957 the committee on student teaching assigned him to a Dade County high school for internship; but before he began, the principal of the school called attention to a letter he had written to a newspaper on the subject of atheism, whereupon the committee held a meeting with him to inquire into the matter, with apparent initial intent that it might be advisable to assign him to some other school.

TOO SURE OF HIS OWN INFALLIBILITY

From the student's attitudes and statements at the meeting the committee determined that he was fanatical and would seek to impress his atheistic views on pupils. Consequently the university withdrew him from the internship and cancelled its acceptance of him as a student in the teaching course, but did not bar him from other courses. He sued to compel specific performance of his contract of enrollment.

The university catalogue at the time of this student's first admission and thereafter had stated that its provisions were not to be taken as an irrevocable contract. The right to change any requirement was reserved, and the university further stipulated the right to "ask a student to withdraw at any time."

The court thought these reservations entitled a privately controlled institution (as this university is) to exclude a student for any reason, or without stating any cause. Several earlier decisions from Florida and other states support this view; but there is a minority of judicial opinion to the contrary. In this case all three of the appellate judges concurred in the conclusion that the student's suit must fail.

COURT DISCUSSES PUBLIC POLICY

Going a bit beyond the law of the case, the court pointed out that

the student had said he would not teach atheism, but that if he were asked questions regarding the subject he would feel required to answer truthfully, meaning in accordance with his beliefs; and that he would not be willing to limit his after-school activities with reference to public statements and writings relating to atheism.

Then said Chief Judge Carroll: "It seems obvious that a university should consider itself under a duty and obligation not to graduate, and release with its stamp of academic approval, a new teacher having attitudes or fanatical ideas, such as with reference to atheism, which if imposed on impressionable minds of the young with whom he must come in contact, would be calculated to operate to their detriment and injury."

If the court's position is correct as to the university's right to abrogate the contract without stating any cause, then nothing further was necessary to decide the case, and the sentence just quoted is *dictum*, yet not without persuasive value.

Teachers ought to be truth-seekers, honest and resolute; but somewhere there is a boundary of prudence beyond which they may impair or destroy their usefulness by persistent advocacy of personal beliefs which arouse widespread distrust and antagonism. Said the liberal Justice Benjamin N. Cardozo in an opinion from the bench of the United States Supreme Court in 1935: "One who is a martyr to a principle—which may turn out in the end to be a delusion or an error—does not prove by his martyrdom that he has kept within the law."

To be sure, it is not a crime to be an atheist; but one who proselytes for his belief indiscriminately may easily become an annoyance; and either students or teachers may be excluded from schools on account of acts or demonstrated tendencies which are not of themselves in violation of any law.

A Faculty Recruitment Program

JOSEPH F. ZIMMERMAN

THE CRITICAL shortage of competent faculty members, which will be intensified by an increasing college age population, is widely recognized as the most serious problem facing engineering and science colleges. The number of recent graduates of engineering and science colleges entering the college teaching profession is insufficient to maintain the present student-professor ratio. It is doubtful whether new instructional techniques, such as television, will permit a significant increase in the student-professor ratio without the quality of instruction suffering.

The dimensions of the problem are large. The purpose of this article is to explore the problem of recruiting faculty members and to propose programs which are designed to recruit competent individuals to the profession.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS

Some professors are leaving the college teaching profession, and individuals who are receiving advanced degrees are hesitating to enter the profession because of the relatively wide differential between the salary schedule of the college teaching profession and the salary schedule of other professions. The proposals discussed below are designed to make the profession more attractive by raising the level of the faculty salary schedule, supplementing faculty salaries, and negating the effect of inflation on faculty salaries.

Tuition charges generally do not cover the entire cost of educating a student. The granting of concealed scholarships to many unworthy students and to students who do not need financial aid makes a mockery of the concept of financial aid for needy scholars and is partially responsible for the financial burden placed on the faculty. The number of automobiles owned by students is indicative of the fact that many students could pay the full cost of their education. Faculty salaries could be raised significantly if tuition charges were raised to a level sufficient to cover the entire cost of educating a student. Business firms are willing to contribute to colleges, but they expect students who are able to do so to pay the full cost of their educations. Why should industry be expected to subsidize students who are not in need of financial aid and/or who may not be deserving?

A full tuition schedule, it must be recognized, would work a hardship for many students and their parents. An equitable solution to the financial problem would be the establishment of two tuition schedules, a full tuition schedule and a deferred tuition schedule. Full tuition would be paid annually by students who possess adequate financial resources. All other students would be on a deferred tuition schedule geared to their financial resources. These students would pay an annual tuition charge that would not cause a financial hardship. The differential between the tuition paid and full tuition would be deferred until the student secures employment following graduation. The student would sign a promissory note to pay a specified amount per month to the college following graduation until the deferred tuition is paid.

A compromise between the present tuition schedule and the full tuition schedule proposed above would be a plan to charge full tuition and, at the end of each semester, refund the differential between the present tuition and full tuition to students who do scholarly work, i.e., honors work. This proposal is intriguing not only because it will raise funds to increase faculty salaries, but also because it will provide great incentives for scholarly work.

College professors have been seriously injured by inflation since 1940. The real income of professors has decreased by approximately 12 per cent during the past 19 years, whereas the real income of factory workers, for example, has risen approximately 43 per cent.

Security is one goal that many seek in life. The relative security offered by the college teaching profession has been one of its attractions. However, inflation has lessened the financial security of the profession and will destroy it unless the inflationary process is stopped or provisions are made to protect the purchasing power of professors' salaries. The embodiment of an escalator cost of living clause in faculty salary contracts would guarantee professors financial security because the purchasing power of the salary of each professor would be protected against inflation.

Colleges generally have failed to keep pace with industry in introducing and increasing fringe benefits, a form of security. Colleges should give more attention to free pensions and life, accident, and illness insurance. The tuition-exchange program holds great appeal for professors with children. Fringe benefits are of great importance to many individuals and often cost the institution less than the salary

increase needed to retain a professor who is considering leaving the institution because of financial pressures.

Funds to raise faculty salaries and provide better facilities could be obtained by a plan which calls for a business firm to agree to donate to the college a specified amount for each graduate of the college it hires. The amount could be paid either in the form of a lump sum when the student is hired, or a specified amount per year until the total amount is paid.

The possibility of developing a work-teach program, similar to a work-study program, should be explored. This plan calls for a professor to teach one semester or quarter, and work in industry the next semester or quarter. The scheduling difficulties involved in this program should not prove insurmountable. The college would benefit not only from retaining and attracting faculty members, but the practical experience gained by the professors would increase the enthusiasm, stimulation, and effectiveness of their instruction. An additional advantage of this program is that individuals in industry who hold advanced degrees might be induced to participate in the program. Furthermore, a larger number of young individuals will decide to enter the profession because the work-teach program will permit them to embark upon both an industrial career and a teaching career.

The differential between the salaries of young faculty members with five or more years of teaching experience and their classmates in industry is often relatively wide. Financial pressures force some outstanding young professors to leave the profession and accept positions in higher paying industry. The salary differential could be reduced by the establishment of junior chairs for outstanding young professors. The junior chairs would be endowed by alumni, friends, and/or industry. The additional \$1,000-\$1,500 provided by the chair, plus the prestige of holding the chair, would help to retain in and attract to the profession competent young men.

Colleges generally have lagged behind the business world in the adoption of the latest managerial developments. The adoption of labor-saving devices long has been an important factor in raising the efficiency of business operations. Colleges, however, still cling to labor consuming practices. Traditional practices must be abandoned.

Savings resulting from a rise in managerial efficiency can be used to raise faculty salaries. An additional factor of importance is that business firms are more willing to donate funds to well-run educational

institutions because they know that the funds will be well spent and that they will get the most for the money they donate.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Inadequate career counseling, in part, accounts for the fact that relatively few recent graduates of engineering and science colleges have entered the college teaching profession. Professors and administrators often fail to urge undergraduates to consider the college teaching profession. The profession should be placed upon the same pedestal as other career fields for the undergraduate to consider. The many advantages of the profession should be clearly illustrated.¹

Serious consideration should be given to the organization of a future professors club on every campus. The purpose of the club would be twofold. First, the club would hold open meetings designed to inform students of the many advantages of the profession. Second, the club could provide training in the philosophy of higher education methodology, evaluation, and counseling for undergraduates and graduate students who have decided to enter the profession. Faculty members and administrators would play a vital role as advisers and speakers.

A few outstanding seniors should be exposed to the dynamics of the college teaching profession by being permitted to teach freshman laboratories and/or recitation classes. The seniors who are instructing must be carefully supervised. A special course in the philosophy of higher education, methodology, counseling, and evaluation could be offered as an elective in the junior year for students who wish to teach during their senior year. A less radical proposal is the use of outstanding seniors as formal tutors. The tutors would be appointed by the department head and paid by the college. Although they would not be teaching a formal college course, the seniors would gain informal teaching experience.

One of the best sources of information upon which to base a recruitment program is the present faculty. Revealing information can be gathered by surveying faculty members as to when and why they decided to enter the profession, what they presently consider to be the advantages and disadvantages of the profession, and what can be done to make the profession more attractive.

¹See Zimmerman, "Proposals on the Staff Crisis," *Journal of Engineering Education*, May 1957, pp. 730-33.

One hears much about professors who leave the profession to accept higher paying salaries in industry, but one hears relatively little about professors who have left industry to enter the profession. These professors should be asked why they left industry and what attracted them to the profession, in order to get ammunition for a recruitment program. The information obtained can be used to attract individuals from industry to the profession and to persuade undergraduates and graduate students to enter the profession.

To be successful in recruiting undergraduates for the profession, facts should be gathered by means of a survey of what the undergraduates are seeking in life, the type of work they wish to do, the working conditions they desire, and the type of position they wish to hold five, ten, twenty, and thirty years subsequent to graduation. The recruitment program can be based partially upon the information revealed by the survey.

Professors can do much to solve the staff problem by talking or writing letters to former students who have teaching potential urging them to consider the many advantages of the profession. The professors could invite their former students, at college expense, to visit them, observe their teaching, and discuss the matter in person with the president, deans, and professors.

Colleges should contact their former professors, who have left the profession, and urge them to return to the profession by outlining the changed conditions which make the profession more attractive.

Colleges must also re-examine their policies of superannuation. Many professors in their intellectual primes are required to retire because of compulsory retirement age policies.

The facilities at some colleges are antiquated, if not primitive, in comparison to similar facilities in industry. Offices crowded with two or three professors are not conducive to raising the morale or the prestige of the professors. Counseling, creative research, and writing are impeded by inadequate office facilities. It is imperative that colleges provide better office facilities if they are to retain and attract outstanding faculty members.

College administrations must re-examine the role that can be played by part-time instructors. Outstanding men in industry, who possess advanced degrees and teaching talents, should be urged by college and industry to teach part-time at a nearby college. Part-time teaching experience might persuade some of the individuals to enter the profession on a full-time basis.

The president and deans of colleges potentially are the best faculty recruiters because they come in contact with large numbers of individuals who are eminently qualified to teach. Presidents and deans are ever addressing alumni clubs and professional societies. Consequently, presidents and deans have golden opportunities to recruit by pointing out the many advantages of the profession.

CONCLUSIONS

An energetic faculty recruitment program must be initiated if the American dream of a higher education for all qualified is to be realized. The present concept of financing higher education must be re-examined. Colleges, if they expect business firms to help solve the financial problem of colleges, must furnish evidence that they are doing everything possible to solve the problem themselves. The tuition price tag must be increased to cover the full cost of higher education. Concomitant with the increase in tuition must be the provision of financial arrangements to ensure that deserving students will not be deprived of a higher education.

This article has emphasized that the remedy for the shortage of competent faculty members is not solely increases in faculty salaries. Dramatic proof is given to this conclusion by the fact that many individuals have left higher paying industrial positions to accept lower paying college positions. Several nonfinancial proposals, designed to make the college teaching profession more attractive, have been advanced.

A recruiting campaign could be carried on by individual colleges as has been done in the past. However, the effectiveness of a recruiting program would be greatly increased if colleges pooled their resources by organizing a special faculty recruiting agency. A co-ordinated recruiting program would do much to overcome the faculty shortage.

A Neglected Element in Superior Student Programs

ROBERT H. SHAFFER

CURRENT reports concerning superior student programs reveal a commonly neglected element essential to their success. It is the failure to recognize the influence of the total university environment and to make provisions to modify or counteract contradictory influences.

Cardinal Newman wrote that "a university is not a school or a group of schools but an atmosphere." Increasingly, the degree of coherence in the university environment is one of the major educational problems of our time. Yet many university staff members seem totally oblivious to the dominant influence of environmental and cultural factors upon the attitudes, values, and intellectual habits of most college students. If not oblivious, they accept little responsibility for the confusing and contradictory forces which characterize most college campuses and which contribute to aspirations for mediocrity, social conformity, and fear of individualism.

The degree of influence of the student culture is characterized by Mervin B. Freedman in reporting on his research at Vassar College as follows:

The student body as an entity may be thought to possess characteristic qualities of personality, ways of interacting socially, types of values and beliefs, and the like, which are passed on from one "generation" of students to another and which like any culture provide a basic context in which individual learning takes place. We contend, in fact, that this culture is the prime educational force at work in the College, for, as we shall see, assimilation into the student society is the foremost concern of most new students. Suffice it to say now that in our opinion the scholastic and academic aims and processes of the College are in large measure transmitted to incoming students or mediated for them by the predominant student culture. . . .¹

He goes on to say, "However, except for a minority, the fundamental philosophy of the college and its academic and intellectual aims do not enter primarily into the formation of the central values and habits

¹ Mervin B. Freedman, *The Journal of Social Issues*, 12:4, p. 14, 1956.

of life of the student body. Instead, for most students, educational experiences are assimilated to a central core of values and dispositions which is relatively independent of the more formal academic influences."²

Freedman further points out that these characteristics of the student culture are not unique to the college atmosphere but rather the influence is so great and pervasive because it is characteristic of American society in general and adolescence in particular that status and security depend in large measure upon relationship with one's peers. Tolerance of mediocre work, softness towards superior achievement, and actual sloppy classroom practice in one course, affect the attitudes and aspirations of the same students in other classes.

If the main objectives of a particular superior student program are to offer advanced and challenging work in a particular subject to students who have already demonstrated superior achievement in that subject, there probably is a minimal harmful effect from other classes and extraclass life. However, if the primary objective of a given program is to stimulate potentially superior students to high achievement in general, the failure to include all classes and extra-class arrangements is a serious handicap.

The failure to recognize the influence of the total environment is strikingly clear in most plans for superior students.³ The typical "superior student program" ignores the fact that such students are members of a society and are influenced by their environment and their associations. Most plans have little if any relationship to the out-of-class life of such students. The cultural environment of the community, which is commonly recognized as being of the utmost importance in determining values and attitudes, is usually totally separated from other stimuli in working out provisions for honors courses, seminars, independent study projects, and specially designed courses.

Professor Joseph W. Cohen⁴ of the University of Colorado and Chairman of the Inter-University Committee on the Superior Student

² *Ibid*, p. 15.

³ See G. R. Waggoner, *Journal of Higher Education*, 28:414-424, November, 1957; Gene A. Garrett, "The Superior Student and College—A Literature Review," University of Missouri Testing and Counseling Service Report No. 18, Feb., 1958; and "The Superior and the Gifted," Special Section in *School and Society*, 86:219-227, May 10, 1958.

⁴ *Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly*, 6:2, p. 5, April, 1958.

recognizes the prior influence of the college environment when he lists as among the essential ingredients of a superior student program the fact that programs for such students should start as early as possible and that students for such programs should be recruited the moment they enter college. He further feels that the freshman and sophomore years are just as crucial for honors as the upper division years despite the traditional practice of reserving honors courses for advanced or upperclass students.

There is little evidence that the labeling of certain classes as "superior" or "honors" has any positive effect on stimulating enrollment in such sections, on encouraging high achievement by students in other sections, or in developing respect and status for high achievers generally. Many academic administrators have been disappointed and disillusioned when they have established superior student sections only to find that students shied away from these sections because they felt that they would be expected to work harder or to do more work than would be required in other sections.

The value system on most campuses seems to label any student who does extra work as a "sucker." High grades are desirable and worthwhile according to student folklore but they are even better if achieved with relatively little effort. It seems to be commonly felt that students can get a higher grade in a traditional course than they can with the same amount of effort in a "superior" section. This reasonably respectable and approved attitude usually overcomes the special attractions of superior sections in the nature of intellectual challenge, self satisfaction in true achievement, or prestige with faculty members.

In summary then, it seems clear that the recognition of the unity of the educational process and of the educational institution dictates that provisions for superior students or for students with special interests should recognize that all individuals are influenced by the total complex of their environment. Special provisions will probably fail or at least be ineffective if they are based on the assumption that limited and isolated stimuli will effect changes in the basic attitude and values of members of social groups. In so far as possible, academic programs for stimulating students to a high achievement should include parallel and related efforts in the living group and the extraclass life of the students.

Editorial Comment

IT WOULD, I should think, be difficult to discuss surrounding phenomena with someone lacking a sense of perspective. Without perspective or appreciation of depth, he would see everything as a two-dimensional complex, and could therefore not understand discussion of a three-dimensional complex. He might perceive the same visual data, but they would have a significance different from that understood by the most of us. Among static objects he could discern only that some looked smaller than others, and assume that they actually were so, since he could not understand the effect of distance from the observer. His landscapes would be like those of early painters, who had not learned to represent perspective.

A distant mountain might well look like a molehill, considerably up in the air. Distant trees would be dwarfed by nearby shrubs and even ferns and flowers. The possibilities of the appearance of receding parallel lines, like the sides of roads, baffle our imagination, as do the questions of movement and shadows. Movement horizontal to the observer would perhaps be completely baffling to our perspectiveless observer, because one object would pass through others; and approaching or receding movement could only be interpreted as change in size and relationship. Shadows might be hopelessly unintelligible. The whole situation, of course, is inconceivable and preposterous, except perhaps for newly-arrived infants. We need not strain our imaginations trying to guess what the world is like to someone lacking a sense of perspective in space.

It is not, unfortunately, inconceivable and preposterous that people lack a sense of perspective in time. We all know, I am afraid, far too many people who have no conception of the nature of anything antedating their own early teens. What is not a part of their personal experience is incomprehensible to them. Only what is of their own time appears as anything worthy of consideration, because they lack the ability to evaluate and understand what went before. Like the perspectiveless man's mountains that resemble molehills, great events of the past appear to be trifles, accomplishments of the past seem trivial, great men of the past look at best like statues and stained glass windows. And just as the great sweep of a deep and varied landscape can look no better than a poor mural painting to the perspectiveless observer, the great sweep of the past, on which all that

now exists depends, is only negligible hearsay to the man without perspective in time. As to a baby, all that is past is nothing: only what touches him has validity.

One regrettable result of such temporal myopia is that he must, again like a baby, learn for himself what mankind learned long ago and transmitted to us by every means of communication discernible, principally by words. He must spend a lifetime learning what competent teachers could bring to him in a few years of education. Furthermore, he has no background against which to evaluate new and unfamiliar events—or familiar ones, for that matter. He can only judge everything by himself—a type of infatuation avoided by even the most eminent of those who have shown the way, the truth, and the light. Like Handel, they first learned all that could be learned, and then went their own ways.

It is an education in the liberal arts that is supposed to furnish a basis for judgment, but the advocates of such an education have a rough time in trying to make clear the rationale of their advocacy. They are faced first of all with the devastating fact that so many professors of the liberal arts are pedants, smugly content in their little bailiwicks, and both irritating and boring to others. Worse than that, however, is the necessity of making clear the nature of perspective to those who have no sense of perspective.

Perhaps it is our religious upbringing that leads us to suppose that we can accomplish what we have to do by preaching and exhortation, that the laity will hear and attend the wisdom of pastors and masters. The laity, however, full of its own success according to its own lights, does not attend. Then we adopt a prophetic strain, and bewail and denounce the inhabitants of Jerusalem. We have abandoned what is perhaps the only art, the only virtue that can entice others to consider our point of view, the art and virtue exercised by possibly the greatest of all advocates of the liberal point of view, the most persuasive of all teachers of the rewarding way of life.

As he is recorded, Socrates was often wrong; but he knew that he could be wrong, because he was ignorant. He believed, however, that the quest of the good life is our most rewarding undertaking, and tried to find with others the way to that good life. In that endeavor he exercised for the greater part of seventy years the art and virtue we have forgotten—forgotten so thoroughly that we do not so much as understand its name: urbanity. Socrates consistently

tried to encourage others to be his comrades in his quest, to persuade others to share with him the excitement and the satisfaction of learning and of growing wiser.

When they killed him, the Athenians may have thought they had got rid of a troublesome and unconforming citizen; but they had only killed an old man whose matchless work was done. Of all the men of antiquity, Socrates is still the liveliest. His urbanity persuades us still—if we take the trouble to listen to him.

Perhaps, then, the best course for those who profess the liberal arts is to emulate Socrates as far as possible in the exercise of urbanity. There is no end of self-gratification in pontifical pronouncement and arrogation of superiority, but there is precious little else in it. Condescension pays off in nothing but neglect. Denunciation merely rouses bad temper and contempt. Even when we are right we can accomplish little without the unremitting exercise of urbanity, which is, in the long run, a delightful way of living an enlightened life.

The first lesson for those of us who hope to profess the liberal arts is urbanity. If it takes us off the pedestals we have set ourselves on and puts us among the citizens in the market place, that is all to the good. Nobody cares about statues that are not works of art, as few of us are; and if we are urbane in the market place we may well encourage others to try to find out how to emulate us. That, after all, is what we want to do. We are supercilious too much of the time, and don't, perhaps, particularly care about the market place. Yet where else but in the market place can we consistently exercise the art and virtue of communal living, urbanity?

S. A. N.

Book Reviews

W. G. B.

R. C. Churchill, with collaboration in Bibliography and Research by Maurice Hussey and Foreword by Ivor Brown, *Shakespeare and His Betters: A History and a Criticism of the Attempts Which Have Been Made to Prove That Shakespeare's Works Were Written by Others*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1958. Pp. xiv + 255. \$5.00.

Frank W. Wadsworth, *The Poacher from Stratford: A Partial Account of the Controversy over the Authorship of Shakespeare's Plays*. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1958. Pp. xiv + 174. \$4.50.

In accordance with the principles of Anglo-Saxon justice, every citizen is entitled to his day in court. The day in court which Shakespeare has become more and more in need of arrived in double measure with the publication of *Shakespeare and His Betters*, by Mr. R. C. Churchill, and *The Poacher from Stratford*, by Professor Frank W. Wadsworth. In the complacent thought that there was no real need to do so, scholars have been curiously reluctant to assemble and present in readable form for the average layman the evidence that can be urged in support of the traditional contention that the plays of Shakespeare were written by Shakespeare. In the meantime, the Baconians, anti-Stratfordians, and other expounders of strange and curious theories have shown no reluctance to present the claims of their rival candidates. It just so happens that Shakespeare is the greatest of our English poets and dramatists, and the matter of who really wrote the plays associated with his name is a subject of more than passing importance. With remorseless logic and an erudition that is enviable, Mr. Churchill, a Britisher, and Professor Wadsworth, an American, restore the plays of Shakespeare to their traditional author.

There have, it is true, been any number of good books which set forth in detail the known facts about Shakespeare's life, and the documentary evidence is far more complete than many persons would have us believe. The official documents, for instance, presented by Tucker Brooke, in his *Shakespeare of Stratford*, begin with the record of Shakespeare's baptism and end with the record of his burial, together with a copy of his will. There is the somewhat similar volume, *Materials for the Life of Shakespeare*, edited by Pierce Butler. The two-volume *Shakespeare Documents*, edited by B. Roland Lewis, contains facsimiles of all the Shakespeare life-documents. *A Life of William Shakespeare*, by Joseph Quincy Adams, remains one of the best and most readable of the "lives." But the great

merit of Mr. Churchill's book, and Professor Wadsworth's, is that they both present and evaluate for the general reader the great body of material which makes it possible for one to see for oneself what the argument over the authorship of Shakespeare's plays is all about. These are books which the casual student of Shakespeare will certainly want to read; they are books which the serious student of Shakespeare will wish to have on the shelves of his personal library; and for the libraries of colleges and universities these are books which will be as essential acquisitions as the latest of the best editions of the plays themselves.

In Elizabethan and Jacobean times, there was never any question as to the authorship of the comedies, tragedies, and history plays associated with the name of Shakespeare. It was common knowledge that the author of these plays was William Shakespeare of Stratford-on-Avon, author, actor, and member of the Lord Chamberlain's Company, which became the King's Men when James I succeeded to the throne. It was also the common knowledge of all concerned that this William Shakespeare was the son of John Shakespeare, also of Stratford, who in 1568 received the highest honor that his fellow townsmen could confer upon him: election to the office of High Bailiff, or in modern terminology, Mayor.

William Shakespeare, who had married Anne Hathaway at 18, turned up in London before he was 30, and quickly became identified with the theater. The playwrights of this period all wrote for the particular dramatic company with which they were associated. Two of the great producing companies of the period were the Admiral's Men, with which Ben Jonson was connected, and the Lord Chamberlain's Company, which Shakespeare joined in the capacity of actor as well as principal writer. The plays which Shakespeare wrote for the Chamberlain's Company and the King's Men had a gratifying box-office appeal, and he was paid well for them. But he also had income from other sources. He was well paid in his capacity as an actor, he was a shareholder in the profits of the Chamberlain's Company, he was part owner of the Globe Theatre, and he had a financial interest also in another theater, the Blackfriars. All evidence points to the conclusion that Shakespeare invested his money wisely, purchased considerable real estate in his native Stratford, and looked forward to the day when he could retire to the quiet life of the village in which he had been born. It was at Stratford-on-Avon that he died on April 23, 1616.

There has never been any real question that William Shakespeare the actor was the William Shakespeare of Stratford. The controversy which has arisen centers around the theory that Shakespeare the actor and Shakespeare the author were two different people. There is ample documentary evidence that there were no such thoughts in the minds of the people of the period concerned. Shakespeare the actor is also mentioned as Shakespeare the playwright as early as 1592, when he was 28. In 1598, Francis

Meres, scholar and critic, published his celebrated *Palladis Tamia*, in which he listed Shakespeare not only as the author of *Venus and Adonis*, *Lucrece*, and the *Sonnets*, but also as the author of twelve plays, practically all that Shakespeare had written up to that time. In all, some twenty of Shakespeare's works were published separately during his lifetime, some of them several times over. These plays were published by a number of different publishers, and Shakespeare's name as the author was always on the title page, with the name of the publisher under it. If there had been something dark and mysterious about the author of these plays, it is strange that at least one of the publishers did not let the secret out of the proverbial bag.

There is other documentary evidence that also links Shakespeare the actor and Shakespeare the author into the one William Shakespeare of Stratford-on-Avon. When an Elizabethan playwright turned the manuscript of a play over to the dramatic company with which he was connected, that play automatically became the property of the company. In other words, it was the players, and not the authors, who were the actual owners of the plays. In 1619, three years after Shakespeare's death, an unscrupulous bookseller by the name of Thomas Pavier had attempted to bring out a pirated edition of Shakespeare's collected plays, but the scheme was abandoned while the copy for the edition was still in galley proof form. In 1623, however, seven years after Shakespeare's death, John Heminges and Henry Condell, the only two surviving members of the King's Men, brought out in one large volume, *The Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies*, by William Shakespeare. Heminges and Condell, it will be recalled, were two of the three fellow actors to whom Shakespeare in his will had left a small sum of money for the purchase of rings to remember him by. In their dedicatory epistle to the Earl of Pembroke and the Earl of Montgomery, Heminges and Condell pay moving and touching tribute to their fellow player, with whom they had been so long and closely associated. As they observed of Shakespeare's plays, now collected for the first time: "We haue but collected them, and done an office to the dead, to procure his Orphanes, Guardians; without ambition either of selfe-profit, or fame: onely to keepe the memory of so worthy a Friend, & Fellow aliuie, as was our Shakespeare." This is the famous edition of Shakespeare's plays that has ever since been known as the First Folio, so called because of its size.

In accordance with the custom and tradition of the times, Heminges and Condell asked several of those who knew Shakespeare well to contribute memorial statements which would appear in the first pages of the volume they were thus publishing. Among those whom they asked to contribute such statements was Ben Jonson, who then dominated the English world of letters and who knew almost everyone worth knowing from the king on down. In his memorial poem, "To the Memory of My Beloved, the Author, Mr. William Shakespeare, and What He Hath Left Us," Jonson clearly identified Shakespeare the author and Shakespeare the actor as the

same William Shakespeare of Stratford-on-Avon. Nor is this memorial poem the only place in which Jonson pays tribute to his friend and fellow dramatist. In his *Timber: or Discoveries*, Jonson has written: "I loved the man, and do honour his memory on this side idolatry as much as any." To list the numerous others of the period who believed as Jonson and Heminges and Condell did would be tiresome. It is well to remember, however, that any such list would contain the names of King James I, King Charles I, and John Milton, who contributed a memorable poem to the Second Folio edition of Shakespeare's plays, which appeared in 1632.

Such, in brief, is the traditional and orthodox account of the authorship of the plays associated with Shakespeare's name. On the other side of the story, however, there has gradually grown up a vast body of unorthodox theories, in accordance with any one of which such a person as Shakespeare is supposed to have been could never possibly have written the plays connected with his name. The number of hypothetical Shakespeares thus far created by the ingenuity of the unorthodox approach to the authorship stands at more than fifty. There was, we are asked to believe, a vast conspiracy on the part of all concerned to keep the identity of the true author hidden. The corollary to all these unorthodox theories is that those who knew Shakespeare best, such as Jonson, Heminges, Condell, Burbage, James I, Charles I, and an endless number of others, were all consummate liars. Ben Jonson was a man of powerful physique; he particularly prided himself on his honesty; and no one in his right senses would have cared to call Ben Jonson a liar to his face.

Let us look briefly at just a few of the most widely current of the unorthodox theories of authorship. Shakespeare's plays exhibit a certain knowledge of the law, a familiarity with legal terms and legal practices. Hence we are to imagine that the plays must have been written by a lawyer. And who could be a more logical candidate than the learned Francis Bacon, particularly since, as those in the know tell us, there are ciphers, cryptograms, or other hidden messages in the plays which subtly point to the Lord Chancellor of England as the rightful author? But Shakespeare's plays also exhibit a familiarity with the customs and traditions of courtly life. Hence they must have been written by a nobleman. So we are asked to believe that they were written by Robert Devereux, second Earl of Essex; or Robert Cecil, first Earl of Salisbury; or William Stanley, sixth Earl of Derby; or Roger Manners, fifth Earl of Rutland; or Edward de Vere, seventeenth Earl of Oxford; or any of a number of others who were known to have been born into the ways of courtly life and manners. But it is a known fact of history that certain of these hypothetical Shakespeares died before some of Shakespeare's greatest plays were written. Hence the Group or Dual Theories, in accordance with which more than one person is supposed to have had a hand in the writing of the plays.

In essence, the anti-Stratfordians, and the proponents of other of the

numerous theories of authorship, insist that Shakespeare's plays must have been written by someone in a higher station of life than Shakespeare. Hence the title of Mr. Churchill's book: *Shakespeare and His Betters*. Mr. Churchill divides his study conveniently into two parts: history and criticism. In the first part, he summarizes the case against Shakespeare's authorship, and presents the corresponding case for the alternative authors or groups of authors, as advanced by the unorthodox theorists. In the second half of his book, Mr. Churchill subjects these various theories to a literary and cultural analysis, which moves with remorseless logic and devastating effect and concludes with a backing of the traditional authorship.

Mr. Churchill tells us that the critical section of his book—that is, the second half of it—"may be regarded as a series of variations on a single theme: *you cannot treat Shakespeare in isolation*." Doubt, for instance, has been cast upon Shakespeare as the author of his plays because of the various ways in which he spelled his name. But the name of Sir Walter Raleigh was written by his contemporaries in at least twelve different ways, that of Christopher Marlowe and Thomas Dekker in at least eight different ways, and the list could be indefinitely extended. It was not at all unusual for an Elizabethan's name to be spelled in a number of different ways: on the contrary, it was the common rule. As a matter of fact, the name of Shakespeare's native town continues to the present day to be spelled in several ways, with Stratford-upon-Avon being just as correct and as acceptable a spelling as the more usual Stratford-on-Avon. Another modern and interesting case in point is that Mr. Churchill spells the name of Shakespeare's long-time personal friend and fellow actor as Heminges, while Professor Wadsworth spells it Heminge. But the point is also made by the promoters of rival candidates for authorship that there is not a single letter in existence that is known to have been written in Shakespeare's own hand. In this connection, it just so happens that there is also not a single letter on record from the pen of Marlowe, Webster, Fletcher, Beaumont, Tourneur, and most of the other dramatists of the period. The charge is further brought against Shakespeare that there is no mention in his will of the manuscripts of any of his plays. Here again, however, as Mr. Churchill cautions us, it is impossible to consider Shakespeare in isolation from the customs and traditions of the times: "Shakespeare's plays were written for the company he belonged to, and they were the owners of the manuscripts. . . . Shakespeare did not mention them in his will . . . because they were not at Stratford to mention: they were in their proper place, in the library at the Globe Theatre. What happened to them afterwards nobody knows, but this is not peculiar to Shakespeare. Hardly any manuscripts of Elizabethan plays survive: some of Jonson and Massinger, none of Marlowe, none of Beaumont, none of Fletcher, none of Kyd, none of Webster, none of Tourneur." Of all the Elizabethan dramatists,

Ben Jonson was the only one who saw an edition of his own plays safely through the press during his own lifetime.

In the art of letters, there is the thing we call style, which, stripped of all subtleties, is nothing more nor less than the individual way in which a writer chooses and combines his words. *Le style c'est l'homme même*, as the pundit Buffon has long ago reminded us. As a literary critic, Mr. Churchill is conscious of the importance of a writer's style. In his chapter on "The Case Against Oxford and Others," Mr. Churchill gives us an excellent account of the development of Shakespeare's style from the sentry-like blank verse of the early plays, with a pause at the end of the line, to the easier and more conversational style of the later plays, achieved without loss to poetic power. An analysis of the progress of "Marlowe's mighty line," from the swelling speeches in *Tamburlaine* to the more elastic movement of the lines in *Edward the Second* can be equally revealing. On this one test of style alone, nearly all the hypothetical Shakespeares can be eliminated.

Another of Mr. Churchill's notable contributions to the authorship controversy is his contention, developed in considerable detail, that this whole subject must have been thoroughly investigated at the time of a special performance of *Richard the Second* in 1601. The special performance of this play had been arranged by the Earl of Essex and his fellow conspirators in the hope that the spectacle of a king being deposed by his subjects would condition the minds of the London citizens to go along with them in their plot to depose Queen Elizabeth and elevate Essex to the office of king. The matter was one of grave concern and it called, among other things, for a careful investigation by the secret police, who were under the efficient direction of an official called Topcliffe. There was the real possibility that the author of this play might be some nobleman, masking under the name of Shakespeare; and if the author actually were some nobleman, there could be no better candidate for the executioner's ax. Accordingly, it would seem that Topcliffe and his men checked into this matter thoroughly, and convinced themselves, beyond any doubt, that the author of *Richard the Second* was Shakespeare, a professional man of the theater and hence free from any guilt in connection with the Essex conspiracy. As Mr. Churchill writes in this connection:

"I want to stress the importance of this investigation of 1601. It is not only the sole neutral enquiry we have any record of, but all later enquiries seem frivolous by comparison. I do not mean that these later enquirers—Baconian and other—have not been sincere; I mean that nothing vital was at stake. The original investigation was personal and to the point, and the charge was the capital one of treason. Shakespeare was alive, to be tortured if necessary by the same men who, four years afterwards, tortured Guy Fawkes; there was a suspected noble author, who, if he had existed, must have been trembling for his head. Under these circumstances, the investi-

gation was bound to have been thorough and the proof of Shakespeare's authorship—and consequently of the non-existence of any noble author behind him—absolutely convincing. It seems to me that here political history comes to the aid of cultural history to support the traditional case."

It could hardly be expected that scholars such as Mr. Churchill and Professor Wadsworth would come at the same subject in exactly the same way, or that they would cover all aspects of the subject in the same depth of detail. Mr. Churchill is a literary critic, editor, and author of some eight other books in the field of English letters and criticism; Professor Wadsworth is a member of the Department of English in the University of California at Los Angeles. *The Poacher from Stratford* is not as comprehensive a study as *Shakespeare and His Betters*, nor does it have a "Selected Bibliography" such as that which Mr. Hussey contributes to Mr. Churchill's book. But the volume is one of comparable scholarship, and Professor Wadsworth concludes, as Mr. Churchill does, that Shakespeare was the writer of his own plays. As Professor Wadsworth remarks in this connection:

"The reasons we have for believing that William Shakespeare of Stratford-on-Avon wrote the plays and poems are the same as the reasons we have for believing any other historical event—for believing that Julius Caesar was stabbed by Brutus and the conspirators, that Charles I lost his head, that Abraham Lincoln was shot watching a performance of *Our American Cousin*. We believe these things because, in the opinion of those best qualified to judge, the historical evidence says that they happened. In exactly the same way the historical evidence says that William Shakespeare wrote the plays and poems. If one can argue that the evidence in Shakespeare's case does not mean what it says, that it has been falsified to sustain a gigantic hoax that has remained undetected for centuries, then one can just as surely argue that other evidence is not to be trusted and that, as Henry Ford said, 'history is bunk.' That is why the charge that Shakespeare did not write the plays does matter. And that is why, until contradictory factual evidence is unearthed, there appears to be no valid reason to doubt that the official records, the evidence of title pages, the testimony of self-described friends and fellow writers, mean just what they appear to say—that William Shakespeare of Stratford was the author of the wonderful works that bear his name."

W. G. B.

Henry M. Wriston, *Academic Procession: Reflections of a College President*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1959. Pp. 222. \$4.00.

After forty-one years of service to higher education, thirty as a college and university president, Henry Merritt Wriston, if given the opportunity, would take the same road again. "The opportunities so far outweigh the

heartbreaks that to evade the responsibilities would be folly." As in the case of so many others, chance led the author into college administration, and much, therefore, had to be learned through experience. There are, obviously, regrets for the mistakes made in learning. There is no concealment of the exasperations and frustrations that face a president, nor of the tremendous demands made on his patience, his tact, his judgment, and his energy. But the prevailing tone in *Academic Procession* is that it was all eminently worthwhile. Henry Wriston is an advocate of scholarship. He views the growing demands on higher education primarily as a challenge to higher aspirations and greater endeavor; and he is convinced apparently that in no service can a man find greater satisfaction than in the university presidency.

Academic Procession is in no sense a history of the Wriston administration at Lawrence College or Brown University. Incidents are recounted without stress on either chronology or place of occurrence. The book is just what the secondary title implies: the reflections of a college president and the conclusions and convictions derived from his experience.

The initial chapter of the book is entitled "Background for a Presidency," and thereafter the author treats successively Trustees, Faculty, Administration, Students, Alumni, and the Public. A book of this kind is not unusual these days. In fact, it has become rather common practice for retiring college presidents to record their experiences and reactions. *Academic Procession*, however, is in some measure exceptional. It is terse, readable, and throughout there is a pleasant vein of good humor. It has much to commend it from the professional point of view, and it can be unhesitatingly recommended to the lay reader.

Two shortcomings may be noted. The book is based largely on experience in privately endowed colleges and universities, and illustrations and conclusions are not always applicable to that segment of higher education which is publicly supported. One can even get the feeling of some slight condescension in the few cases where reference is made to the state-supported college or university. The second fault, if it may be so described, is in the variation of quality. Some parts of the book strike the reviewer as exceptionally good, notably the opening chapter, "Background for a Presidency," and Chapter IV, "The Administration." On the other hand, the final three chapters hardly maintain this high standard.

The invaluable lessons learned by Henry Wriston are skillfully passed on in anecdote and illustration, with the key idea easy to identify. Early in the game, he was supported in a controversy by a governing board but advised by one of its members as follows: "We had to back you up because you were right; but don't be right in such an irritating way again." Experience taught him that "curriculum in American Colleges are not half as good as members of the faculty know how to make them"; that "when

the need is for decision, almost any competent and sincere individual is better than a committee"; and that "every college president should rid himself of the deceptive cliché that research and teaching do not go together." He came to believe that "every time a formula is substituted for responsible judgment there is official defeasement. Rules make decision easy but rob it of wisdom." He concluded that "faculty meetings represent the lowest common denominator of the group" and that the "genuine task (of higher education) is the cultivation of a mind that seeks to express itself in its own way at its own best level." Finally, he assures us that "if a college cannot serve a student intellectually it cannot serve him at all."

Further illustration is unnecessary. Henry Wriston has rendered a genuine service to higher education in placing in print his recollections and his conclusions regarding the meaning and purpose of higher education and the principles that should govern in its administration.

LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN
Vice President
University of Kentucky
Lexington, Kentucky

Herman Lee Donovan, *Keeping the University Free and Growing*. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Press, 1959. Pp. xi + 162. \$4.00.

This is an account of a university president who had the opportunity to lead an institution for fifteen years in one of the most eventful periods in its history. Herman Lee Donovan became President of the University of Kentucky in 1941 and retired in 1956. This short book is a report to the citizens of Kentucky and to the alumni, faculty, and students on his stewardship. The title is well chosen, because the principal problems in this hectic period were those that had to do with freedom, control, and development. Issues regarding both the freedom of the faculty to govern the University and legal limitations on salaries threatened to disrupt the University just as Dr. Donovan became President. By persistence and patience, he removed both barriers, although it took six years to get a change in the Supreme Court decision that limited annual salaries of professors to five thousand dollars. The University was saved from collapse by a generous grant from the Keeneland Foundation so that supplementary salary grants were possible.

Dr. Donovan had to struggle continuously to get enough money to hold a good faculty and take care of needed expansion in facilities and new programs. The legislature cut his requests in every session save two. Gifts from friends and alumni, and especially the Higgins Trust Fund, saved the day in the early years of his tenure. The freedom of the University was

threatened a number of times during Dr. Donovan's tenure. The author refers to these threats as "vicious, ingenious and subtle." Politicians, religious organizations, and citizens with special axes to grind were the culprits. A vigorous program of public relations and a firm stand by the President and the Board of Trustees enabled the institution to keep itself free in each case. Dr. Donovan had to teach his Board and the public that the University could never accomplish its high mission if it were not allowed to grow in an atmosphere of freedom. Once he had to use the powerful accrediting associations to free the institution of detailed financial control from the state capitol. Dr. Donovan seems to have met such problems in a straightforward and fearless manner without damage to himself or the institution.

One is not surprised to find chapters on finance, building programs, new programs, the war years, student conduct, relations with faculty and staff, integration, athletics, trustees, the library, the press, and foundations. Dr. Donovan is particularly concerned with the chipping away of the Board of Trustees' power by state law and budgetary control that denies the Board the power to make decisions. More and more the policy is being made by budget officers, legislators, and others. These are problems of many public educational institutions in the recent period. They are challenges that undoubtedly make the yoke of a university administrator a heavy one. Undoubtedly, Dr. Donovan is right in insisting that these trends are subtly sapping the strength of governing boards and thereby taking from universities their ability to move with imagination, freedom, and vigor.

As the author insists in the Preface, this is not a history of the University of Kentucky, nor is it an autobiography of a man. It is a report of the problems "that one college president encountered." Some may complain that it is an uneven and incomplete report. For instance, only three pages are used to tell about the war years and the period of heavy enrollment following the conflict, but ten are given to the chapter on the struggle to keep the institution free. Fifteen pages are allocated to the policy and program on intercollegiate athletics, four to the University Press and the foundations, and four and a half to the library. However, Dr. Donovan is reporting on the issues that were provocative and dangerous, and that required statesmanship. The struggle to keep the hands of the selfish and the powerful from the University's throat was more significant for our time than the constructive handling of many important educational ventures.

The historian who writes the history of the University in the decades ahead may find these other developments of great significance and may allocate more space to them. But he will also probably find that he must

agree with Dr. Donovan that the issues discussed here were vital and significant.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH, *Professor of History
and Dean of College of Arts and Science
University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri*

Harold W. Stoke, *The American College President*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. ix + 180. \$3.50.

Teachers and administrators in American colleges and universities will find this book interesting in the way in which it analyzes the varied forces which play on the top man in educational institutions. The book should be required reading for admission officers and registrars, who harbor in the deepest recesses of their hearts a hope that some day they may become presidents. All the frustrations of the occupation are presented without embellishment.

Dr. Stoke writes from experience, for he has held such positions as Dean of the Graduate School of the University of Washington, Dean of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences at New York University, and President of the University of New Hampshire and of Louisiana State University. He is now President of Queens College in New York City.

Apparently, a college president must be all things to all people. To his faculty and the public he must present a scholarly face, to his trustees a face that shines with success as a money getter and business manager, to his students a face that is wrinkled with lines of kind understanding, and to his alumni a face that glows with optimism as he discusses the athletic failures of the past year.

Because of the variety of audiences that must be pleased, the trend toward selection of proved administrators rather than scholars is discussed throughout the ten chapters. The recent resignation of scholars from prominent presidencies suggests a basic dissatisfaction over a job that gives a scholar so little time for reading or studying. Scholarship plays no part in 90 per cent of the decisions which must be made by a college president.

According to Dr. Stoke, the most difficult and important single task of a college president is the selection and maintenance of a faculty. Paradoxically, the president who succeeds in getting a strong faculty only increases his own problems. Good teachers want more equipment, more books, more assistants, more freedom, more of everything which the president is supposed to supply.

Admission officers will find the short chapter on "The President and the Students" especially interesting. As Dr. Stoke says, "... if the college hits the freshman hard, let it be said that the freshman also hits the

college hard." If student life on the campus is to have meaning and direction, if student life is to mesh with the purpose of the institution, then it falls on the president, more than anyone else, to make the purpose of the institution clear to the students.

In his final chapter, Dr. Stoke dwells on the importance of a president's having a well-considered philosophy of education, a set of controlling ideas that direct everything the president says and does, and, hopefully, everything his institution stands for. Since a president must explain his institution to many audiences in many places, his remarks will have order and unity only in relation to his philosophy of education.

The four major components which presidents must incorporate in their philosophy of education are listed as follows: a faith in education as salvation, the doctrine of national necessity, the acceptance of utility, and views on education and democracy. Dr. Stoke discusses each of these briefly.

Dr. Stoke's book will help all administrators, major or minor, think through various problems of higher education in America today. After reading this book, you will certainly be a bit more tolerant and understanding of your own boss, and there is a chance that your own job will seem simpler and therefore more pleasant.

Not a bad return on a \$3.50 investment, eh?

EUGENE S. WILSON
Dean of Admission
Amherst College
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Samuel B. Gould, *Knowledge Is Not Enough*. Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Antioch Press, 1959. Pp. 232. \$3.50.

This is a collection of some of Dr. Gould's speeches, delivered since 1955, which he considers representative of his educational philosophy. Dr. Gould was President of Antioch College from 1954 until July of this year, when he became first Chancellor of the University of California at Santa Barbara.

This is an excellent volume. It abounds in incisive observations on the contemporary educational scene and stimulating ideas for education in the challenging years which lie ahead. Dr. Gould does not agree with those who feel the college president should be chiefly fund-raiser and administrator—he must, on the contrary, also help to shape academic philosophy. Accordingly, Dr. Gould faces in the opening pages the educational situation today. "I am convinced that the tremendous and terrifying problems which now suddenly face higher education in America are the most fortunate developments ever to have occurred. They make it mandatory

for us to examine . . . what we are doing, to reassess our educational philosophy."

This examination and reassessment he proceeds to carry through in the pages which follow. In chapter two, he probes the dearth of imaginative and creative thinking in our present secondary and higher education. This has happily witnessed a renaissance in present-day science but is still lacking in the humanities and the disciplines of social science. He pleads for ennobling, not enabling, methods in education to meet this problem.

His next chapter is a fine tribute to the teaching profession. The true teacher is a person with a "touch of immortality": one who desires to leave a vestige of himself in the development of another. Teachers have been too defensive about themselves as a group. The coming years, which will bring millions of students to the schools, will bring about a changed concept of the teacher and his place in society. "He will be a powerful force by which the nation will achieve maturity of mind and serenity of spirit. . . . He will be recognized and honored among men as one to whom God has given a priceless opportunity to serve." The author notes that the teacher can foster his own increased status in the community by more fully participating in the life of his community. It has been said that the good teacher should not come between the subject and the student, but I am inclined to agree with Dr. Gould that the good teacher will be remembered long after the details of the subject are forgotten.

Chapter four sets forth the author's view of what the true dimensions of a college should be. It is refreshing to note that he squarely insists that one of these dimensions should be the spiritual. He confesses to some uncertainty as to how this might best be implemented, but offers some plausible suggestions. Few will quarrel with his other points here.

In chapter five, he pleads for the preservation and moreover the proliferation of the private liberal arts college. American education needs this "diversity of pattern." The individual and corporate consciousness must be awakened to the urgency of the financial need in this area. Dr. Gould certainly speaks out of conviction and experience here. He might have pointed out, however, that a certain minimum size for these institutions is necessary for proper facilities and the quality education he desires. Moreover, his "or else" postulation to an awakening to this need factor—"settling for a mass education geared to the principle of mediocrity"—seems a bit stringent. Many sizeable public institutions today are offering programs of real excellence which they are able to offer in large part because of their size.

In chapter six, he discusses Sputnik and its meaning in the educational world of today. He rightly insists that science must have a place in the education of the young for their role in life, regardless of their special

field of interest. He also properly remarks that to accomplish this the scientists and nonscientists must learn to talk to one another and in each other's language. In expatiation, he quite correctly states in the following chapter that we will not best the Russians by turning out more technical engineers and scientists than they do. We must gear our program to the education of the *whole* man and the principle of humane learning grounded in the humanities. In the course of his argument on a proper blend of humanities and science for all, Dr. Gould indicates that we should approach this problem through the recognition that the sciences and the humanities stem from different traditions. I disagree with this dichotomy. The separation out that has occurred has, I think, been the fault of the humanists, who along the way got off the unified track which leads from Greece.

Chapter eight, "A Time for Candor," is one of Dr. Gould's best. He cautions that the new federal program is a "crash" program and one which leaves the nonscientist almost completely forgotten. An enduring program for the total welfare of education calls for continuing sacrifice on the part of Americans, and he is quick to point out what some of these sacrifices must be. We must get rid of the parochial point of view: there must be more communication between the disparate elements in our society—education, business, labor, industry. We must get rid of the business-as-usual attitude and determine not how much more we shall spend on education, but "how much more of what we now spend on everything we are willing to allocate to education. . . . We must resolutely throw aside the shibboleths which have become part of the traditions of education . . . and recognize once and for all that an educational pattern must be shaped to the needs of the total human being and the time in which he will live." These are just a few points from this fine chapter.

In the two excellent chapters which follow, he deprecates any ego-centered tendency in education and pounds hard at education's responsibility for awakening the student to a realization of his place in the cosmos and making him eager to be a participant in the total life. Education should not only liberate man's mind; "it should broaden and deepen his sense of humanity and dignity." This underscores about as nicely and succinctly as possible the title of his book.

The foregoing represents the series of talks delivered to Antioch students. In the course of the remaining five speeches (which must be briefly noted) given before professional organizations, the author stresses the need to make a college program international in character, including a year abroad. (This is admirable, but it does not seem realistic to hope to send vast numbers of our students abroad each year.) He voices the desirability of some form of co-operative education (with suggested

principles for its establishment) as an aid to colleges and universities of all types in their individual difficulties. (This is a natural plea from the President of Antioch. In partial support of it, he quotes results of a survey made of ten-year graduates of Antioch and a conventional liberal arts college which showed the Antioch graduate generally had made more progress professionally and had evinced a stronger sense of civic responsibility. Admittedly, these results are of interest, but the statistical base is too narrow.) The penultimate chapter emphasizes in a fine presentation the need throughout America for thoroughgoing programs of adult education in the interest of educating everyone to the fullest degree of his capacity to learn. With characteristic thoroughness, Dr. Gould lists twelve principles which should guide the formulation of such programs centered ideally in the colleges and universities across the land. The final chapter contains a vigorous statement on what the public relations officer of a college should primarily be: not a fund-raiser or a publicity man, but a scholar dedicated to the educational philosophy of his institution and a faithful interpreter of this philosophy.

Recurring throughout the book like a symphonic theme is the admirable thought that higher education should serve the whole man in humane learning and should be firmly rooted in the humanities. The difficulty here is that the humanities in their various aspects have tended to become too disjointed and compartmentalized. The author notes this briefly on occasion, but to this reader at least it would have been desirable to speak at length to this fundamental point. Its different branches have unfortunately become so vocationalized or professionalized that it is difficult or impossible for a nonmajor to make any appreciable election of courses in many liberal arts departments. To accomplish the fine educational purpose Dr. Gould has in mind, the branches of the humanities must be synthesized and presented in relation to life.

Dr. Gould's listeners—and particularly the Antioch students—enjoyed a high privilege in being able to share these thoughts with him. It is reassuring to find the direction of higher education in such capable hands as those of Dr. Gould.

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Program for College Preparatory Mathematics. Report of the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1959. Pp. xii + 63. \$1.00.

For some years, the Mathematics Examiners of the College Entrance Examination Board have been concerned about the appropriateness in the second half of the twentieth century of the traditional high school mathematics curriculum on which they were basing their examinations. They knew that some of the better preparatory schools were introducing work of a more modern character and that the Board's examinations must gradually reflect this fact—and they felt that a rather decisive curricular reform in secondary school mathematics was long overdue for many reasons that went far beyond their own problems of testing. The Commission on Mathematics was, therefore, appointed by the Board in 1955 and charged with the task of reviewing the existing secondary school mathematics program and making recommendations for its modernization and improvement.

The Commission is composed of more than a dozen prominent mathematicians and teachers of college and secondary school mathematics. Among these are Professors A. W. Tucker and S. S. Wilks of Princeton University, Dean A. E. Meder, Jr., of Rutgers, Martha Hildebrandt of Proviso Township High School in Illinois, and R. E. K. Rourke of Kent School.

During the four years of its existence, the Commission has issued a number of pamphlets showing how the teaching of various specific topics could be improved by adopting a more modern point of view and modern terminology, why the present courses in plane and solid geometry should be replaced by a single one-year course in geometry, why and how a good course in probability and statistical inference should be introduced into the senior year, etc. They produced an experimental text book for this last-named course, and now have a second edition of it in preparation.

The present Report is the culmination of all this activity. It sets forth the Commission's Program in mathematics for what they call the "college-capable" student, for grades 9-12. Very briefly, the Program is as follows:

Grade 9. Elementary Mathematics I. This is similar to the traditional ninth grade algebra course in that it includes most of the usual topics through quadratic equations. There is a considerable difference in emphasis and point of view. Recommended definitions and terminology are modern. New topics include the basic notions of sets, ordered pairs, and inequalities. An elementary introduction to statistics and the numerical trigonometry of the right triangle are optional topics.

Grade 10. Elementary Mathematics II. This is the geometry course. In it, plane geometry is treated in a more modern fashion, employing analytical techniques along with the classical methods. The parts of solid geometry that are not discarded are included here. Solid geometry as a separate course disappears.

Grade 11. Intermediate Mathematics. This course includes some of the topics that are usually found in intermediate algebra and college algebra, the analytical trigonometry of general angles, and some new topics including vectors and an elementary introduction to the ideas of modern abstract algebra.

Grade 12. Advanced Mathematics. The first semester of this year would be directed to a course which they quite appropriately call Elementary Functions. It is essentially a study of the properties of the polynomial, exponential, logarithmic, and circular functions. The part of traditional trigonometry that is not in the previous course appears here under the circular functions. This includes the graphs and periodic properties of the functions, their inverses, etc. (Observe that trigonometry, as a separate course, disappears.) For the second semester, there are three alternatives. The first is a course in Probability and Statistical Inference, the second is a course in Modern Algebra, and the third is a continuation of the Elementary Functions course with additional topics.

The Commission recommends that colleges specify their admission requirements in the nomenclature given above: i.e., Elementary Mathematics I and II, if they require two years; Elementary and Intermediate Mathematics if the requirement is three years, etc. They point out that a student who presents $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 years of this program should be ready for a substantial course in analytic geometry and calculus as a college freshman.

The Report stresses the fact that the content of the Commission's Program can be incorporated in a variety of course sequences and that this lends flexibility to their recommendations. This is, of course, true—and for this reason we should not expect to see the separate course in trigonometry disappear overnight even though the Commission's disposition of the content of this course appears to be better.

In the opinion of this reviewer, the work of the Commission will have a very great impact on the teaching of secondary school mathematics over the next decade. Under normal conditions, one would expect that changes in an established teaching pattern would come very slowly—but these are not normal times. New textbooks by various "writing groups" and individuals are already beginning to appear. Large numbers of teachers are learning the elements of modern mathematics through federally financed summer institutes, academic year institutes, and individual scholarship programs. It seems likely that significant improvements in high school mathematics will come rather quickly.

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C. L. Barber, Amherst College, Donald Sheehan, Smith College, Stuart M. Stoke, Mount Holyoke College, Shannon McCune, *Chairman*, University of Massachusetts, *The New College Plan: A Proposal for a Major Departure in Higher Education*. Amherst, Massachusetts, 1958. Pp. 55.

A committee, including a representative each from Amherst College, Smith College, Mount Holyoke College, and the University of Massachusetts, has had the extraordinary privilege, with the help of the Fund for the Advancement of Education, of creating a plan for a new college that would make a "major departure in higher education." The four institutions are considering the possibility of jointly sponsoring a fifth institution to help educate the horde of youngsters now approaching college age.

The proposal should be judged according to its purpose—to provide a college "education of the highest quality at a minimum cost per student and with as small a faculty relative to the student body as new methods of instruction and new administrative procedures can make possible." Actually, the proposed program is hard to judge, because the committee is noticeably reticent on matters like the estimated costs of instruction (they do specify an initial expenditure of \$500,000 for library books), though volubly dogmatic on matters like location and architecture.

Presumably, the student at New College has a great deal of freedom in the choice of courses and instructors, but "direction" is given to his work "by a program of concentration which will include rigorous examinations on recognized fields of knowledge, one in his junior year and two (or one and a thesis) in his senior year."

Each student is expected to take three courses. The beginning freshman registers for a Freshman Seminar (average, 12 students each) in the humanities and another in the social sciences and a "required science course in mathematics, physics, and chemistry." The second-semester freshman continues the science course but shifts from the two pure Seminars to two Lecture-Student Seminars (average, 24 students), which meet for lectures and then divide into two or more parts for seminar purposes, with the instructors sometimes absent.

The "staple of the curriculum after the freshman year" is Lecture-Student Seminars. The post-freshman science requirement can be met by a semester course on "the impact of science on society [for example, the impact of radioactive fallout or over-population] or by an introductory course in biology or psychology, or by work in either physics, chemistry, or mathematics." Courses required for distribution in the humanities and social sciences must be completed by the end of the junior year. Courses for concentration occupy one-half to two-thirds of the student's time during the last two years. At least one Advanced Seminar (average, 10

students) must be taken during the second half of the junior or during the senior year. Languages are encouraged but not required, though the plan may be changed if the study of languages is neglected. Credit is not given for elementary language study.

A genuine novelty is the month-long winter term during which all students take the same two courses, changed from year to year, one organized around a Western topic, like "the meaning and nature of a 'Renaissance' moment in history," and one non-Western topic, like "aspects of Buddhism" or "totemism and related social and artistic forms of Africa." The two courses of a midwinter term are equivalent to a one-semester course. They provide a common intellectual experience, though at the expense of consistency with the major assumption that "we cannot, and should not, settle what should be required for all."

Tentatively, the president is chosen by the faculty for a five-year term. The faculty itself is organized only into three divisions, each division director being relieved of one-third to one-half of his teaching duties. Fifty faculty members serve a student body of 1,000. Each, without regard to rank, offers one lecture course and two seminars. No graduate work is attempted. Half the faculty teach in the winter term for extra pay. Other midwinter faculty are recruited for a few days at a time—"Part of their compensation will be the chance to test their ideas with an informed and active audience." (New England thrift is not always so slightly disguised.) Some courses are offered only through the sponsoring colleges (each student must take one such course). Such courses, including transportation and other facilities, are paid for by New College.

The library is the architectural center of the new coeducational college. Study space and laboratories are close by, with a "covered passage" connecting the laboratories to the "delivery desk area." Encouragement is given to "intellectual and social interchange" by an arrangement of "chairs in alcoves and on landings." (No mention is made of candlelight.) Automatic vending machines are conveniently placed. Married students occupy "an attractive park for mobile homes." (This sounds to me like the traditional postwar trailer camp.)

There are no fraternities or sororities, no required courses in physical education—"what is compulsory becomes perfunctory,"—no charges for athletic contests, no empire building in any student activity, even campus publications. Informal sports which can be continued after college are emphasized, along with "chess, bridge, bowling, pool, and the like." Art, music, theater, and dance are "related, in a variety of ways, to the academic interests of those participating." "Trails for nature study" are to be developed in "adjoining woodland."

The committee proposal should remind us that a college need not be very complex—a few books, a few competent instructors, a bit of scientific

equipment, and a few students. New College escapes some of the proliferation of courses often found in American colleges, some of the empire building of individual departments, and the evils of fraternities, sororities, and semiprofessional athletics. It might well provide a sound education, at least for a number of students who are able to furnish their own motivation.

Would the education be relatively inexpensive? I think not. The mid-winter term might well prove costly—and the academic advantages of a convention-like program are at least doubtful. The use of student-directed seminars might work well, particularly if the students were well paid and supervised, but they too would increase the cost. If we add the charges for transportation and "collateral instruction" at the sponsoring institutions, the salaries of student directors of sports, the costs of administration and library, and the provision for scholarships, the ratio of twenty students to one faculty member suggests to me that there would be a lower-paid faculty or a higher tuition rate or a greater need for endowment than the committee anticipated.

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Evaluation in the Basic College at Michigan State University.
Edited by Paul L. Dressel. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958.
Pp. viii + 248. \$4.00.

How people feel about evaluation is much more important than data. Unless everyone concerned wants to co-operate—and believes that the results will make action worth while—an evaluation project will solve few problems.

Common sense like that—written with wit and in an uncommonly attractive style—makes this little book a friendly series of tips for that research project you have been thinking about beginning again. It also underscores some of your suspicions concerning why that costly material over in File Drawer 26 failed to attract adequate attention, despite the fact that a research expert labored at it so hard so long.

Asking the right question upon which research shall be based is one of the very first difficulties. It must be neither a biased question nor a taboo question. An example of a taboo question is one which concerns the relative teaching efficiency of individuals; another is one which merely starts a fight but cannot end it, like "Are small classes more effective than large ones?" No study of class size is reported in this volume.

Answers to evaluative questions often disappoint, confuse, or even anger

consumers who expect research results to dictate "Do it" or "Don't do it." Having suffered their baptism of fire, Dressel and his colleagues suggest that you prepare your colleagues to expect only the possible—results which provide additional insights into the problems involved and state those insights in the form of probabilities and assumptions.

Research questions must also be practical. Almost all of us would like to know the answer to this one: "Are our students today smarter than their fathers and grandfathers?" Unfortunately, the answer must be founded on so many assumptions and stated with such a low probability of correctness that it can hardly be called oracular.

But let's be positive. If there were not a very great deal indeed that evaluation *can* do for an educational administration, Dressel and his colleagues would not have written their progress report. Their chronicle of work undertaken and accomplished surely will suggest ways in which you may want to apply their hard-won learning to your own problems.

The first thing you will do is throw out the window any further attempts at prediction of academic success from the entrance test battery. In many institutions, the efforts to do something with this lowest common denominator of educational research are the contents of File Drawer 26 mentioned above. Dressel and his colleagues consider that the Reading Test is the best predictor of grade-point average to be earned.

So universally approved of that no one wanted to see it dropped was the project investigating why students leave the institution:

"No student expressed an unfavorable attitude toward the inquiry, and many made favorable comments. . . . Many of the students expressed surprise that their absence from the campus had been noticed officially. . . . We are now convinced that such a follow-up can be justified entirely on the basis of public relations value. . . . When at the conclusion of four years of the study it was proposed to discontinue the follow-up activity . . . deans and other administrators of the University insisted that some procedures should be worked out to continue the program."

If in your institution the academic climate is chilly for those who can't make up their minds concerning a major, you'll be interested in the Michigan State conclusion that choice of vocation and curriculum is a process rather than merely an event.

"This manner of beginning college work (with no preference major) holds much promise for certain categories of college freshmen. . . . Improved self-understanding is an attainable goal of counseling. . . . The major choice of the 'no preference' students, once selected, appeared to be more stable than those made by students who had indicated a preference upon first entering college."

Grades are a problem at Michigan State, too. After long, hard study, Dressel concludes:

"We are convinced, therefore, that there is no solution to the grading problem entirely satisfactory to all concerned. . . . Grading is inevitable and we must continue to strive toward making it less inaccurate, but always with the awareness that overemphasis on grading is not conducive to good instruction. Admission that grades in the formal sense cannot and should not encompass all the desired outcomes of education is a necessary requisite to so defining and determining them that a degree of objectivity can be introduced."

The Michigan State group obviously did a great deal of work in seeking to add to the validity and reliability of grading. The narrative of those labors makes excellent reading.

Fuel for an academic fire anywhere are the words "General Education." Insights into this congeries of problems gained by Dressel and his fellows are enviably clear:

"We were successful in selecting key issues," Dressel writes, "and . . . the students were uninhibited in their response." The response was more than 80 per cent favorable to general education. Faculty members, too, as quoted by the students, evidently were favorable to general education.

Credit by examination, the utility of second final warnings for low achievers, tests to promote thinking, sex and good grades, personality and the relationship of some kinds of it to some kinds of testing and to academic achievement—new insights into these and many more facets of evaluation will reward the reading of these closely packed pages.

Altogether this is the kind of book you will want to read three times—the first for information, the second for numerous extremely apt quotations, and the third for valuable guidance in planning a new start on your own co-operative research program.

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Ira M. Smith, *Looking Ahead: To Go Or Not To Go To College* (24 pages) and *Here Comes College!* (20 pages). LesStrang Publishing Company, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Ira M. Smith, elder statesman of AACRAO, Registrar Emeritus of the University of Michigan, and college admissions consultant, is the author of two attractive brochures, one with the title, *Looking Ahead: To Go Or Not To Go To College*, and the other with the title, *Here Comes College!* Few people have labored in the companion vineyards of admissions and records for a longer period of years than Mr. Smith, and few persons today are better qualified than he to discuss with young people and their parents the

important subject of college admission. In each of these brochures, Mr. Smith presents his material with an economy of word and page that might at first seem misleading. But the careful reader will soon discover that Mr. Smith is concerned with the distilled essence only, and that he has culled his facts carefully and has presented his information well.

In the earlier of his booklets, *Looking Ahead*, Mr. Smith tells us that he prepared it for the information of high school seniors confronted with an answer to the important question: What shall I do after graduation from high school? In his handling of the answer to this all-important question, Mr. Smith organizes his material under the following headings: "What Makes Success?," "Who Should Attend College?," "Planning for College—for a Career," "Now—Let's Get Specific," "Campus Environments and Influences," "A Few Hints on How To Study," "A Few Facts for College Freshmen," and "Making the Most of College." As Mr. Smith has stated, "The more young people can think about their plans for college while still in high school the more easily they will be able to adjust to college conditions."

In *Here Comes College!*, Mr. Smith gives us answers to a list of 28 of the questions which he feels are those of greatest interest and value to college-bound boys and girls. His answers to these questions contain such sound advice as the following: "Good work in the senior year of high school is most important for good preparation for the freshman year in college. Studies in the senior year should have a close relationship to those which will be required in the first year of college." . . . "Many high school seniors who are heading for college fail to realize that the competition in college, as well as in after life, is much keener than in high school. To meet adequately this keen competition one needs to be well disciplined in mental habits. He must be able to study on his own without the need of constant prodding. This implies self-direction." . . . "When you go to college take with you your good home training and practice it daily. Mingle freely with your fellow students. Be willing to listen and learn from them. Have an open mind. Be thoroughly and firmly convinced before changing it." In the answers to his modest list of carefully selected questions, Mr. Smith avoids the chaff and gets to the golden grain quickly.

W. G. B.

Willard Abraham, *Common Sense About Gifted Children*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xii + 268. \$5.00.

This is a practical book which should be of particular interest to laymen and to teachers and administrators who are not specialists in the education of gifted children. The style of writing is attractive; in fact, it is quite arresting. Here is one example:

"*Find the gifted children.* In our schools, in our families, in our churches

—find all of them, in all races and socioeconomic levels, in the Gold Coast and slum areas of our cities, in the windswept Navajo country of northern Arizona and the French-speaking snow country of northern Maine, hidden away in the Tennessee hills and around the lumber camps of the great northwest forests. No geographical area, skin color, or occupational group has a monopoly on giftedness, so the job becomes one of ferreting out our bright children by valid tests, observation, and all the scientific, semiscientific, and intuitive means at our command."

The book presents a general picture with relatively little detailed technical material. The title is accurate; the book is replete with common sense, and the common sense is based on a consistent point of view, on studies, and on good practice. Many examples of good practice are cited.

Chapter I, on "Why This Is An Important Subject," concludes with the words: "We are due for a daring experiment in this field, based on a realistic approach. We're ready to evaluate where we are and what we intend to do—fast. Since we have failed on a large scale so far to provide the challenge our thousands of gifted children deserve and our society must have for its survival, it is time for a concentrated summary of our status, and a series of new ideas, even though they may startle the status-quoers."

Chapter II carries the title "Who Are The Gifted Children?" Of particular interest to many readers will be the summary of signposts of giftedness and of means of discovering giftedness.

Chapter III should be read with interest by parents. The title is "What To Do About Them—Parents." Numerous practical suggestions are proposed for parents of gifted children, and close parent-teacher co-operation is appropriately encouraged.

Chapters IV, V, and VI have the captions "What To Do About Them—Elementary Schools," "What To Do About Them—High School and Beyond," and "What To Do About Them—Help From Outside Home and School," respectively. While brief, the chapters contain pointed summaries of practices in selected schools: digests of a number of important studies; analyses of the ideas basic to ability grouping, acceleration, and enrichment; sketches of the activities of selected foundations, scholarship organizations, states, and the national government; and an urgent plea throughout for increased action in providing ever-improved opportunities for the gifted.

Chapter VII proposes qualifications needed by a teacher of the gifted and suggestions concerning their education.

The last two chapters, Chapter VIII and IX on "Unfinished Business on the Gifted" and on "A Time For Action," are challenging and pointed. The research needed, the role of the public, and a six-fold plan of action for improving opportunities for gifted children are set forth.

Throughout the book well-chosen quotations are used to very good advantage. This book should enjoy a wide audience.

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An Adequate Permanent Record and Transcript Guide. AACRAO Committee on Transcript Adequacy, Howard P. Shontz, Chairman. A publication of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers: January 1959. Pp. iii + 19.

The introduction to this *Guide* opens with a literary air, follows with a few philosophical bits, and continues with a small history of attention given by the membership over a period of forty-five years, with particular reference to the need of constant study.

The opening paragraphs of the body of the report begin with a definition of *permanent record*. This standard beginning is immediately followed by statements regarding what else appears "on some record forms" without interpretation of the correctness of their presence. Each of these statements is worthy of elaboration, though the *Guide* may not be the proper place. "An official transcript carries the signature of a proper certifying officer and the seal of the institution." Who is a proper official?

The listing of essential items and the orderly explanations that follow are very clear and reasonable. (Of course they are; they were formulated by registrars!) In only one sentence did this reviewer not find a clear and complete meaning, "Separate graduate records should list all previously earned degrees including dates and sources."

Item 14, *Status at time of last attendance*, as described on page nine, is still open to discussion. The intrusion of disciplinary records into academic records is not allowable in some institutions, and this fact was recognized in a report made by a joint committee representing ACPA, NADW, NASPA, AACRAO in 1953 and added to *Policies and Procedures* as a supplement in 1954. The terminology used in Item 14 has not been standardized by common usage, as most of the terms in other items have become recognized. The words *suspension* and *dismissal* do not connote meanings expressed here; nor should we use two designations to represent only a difference in time out while using no expression to mean "out forever." Would the memorandum "suspended indefinitely" mean suspension or dismissal? This kind of failure to reach uniform terminology will exist so long as we have institutions that include such statements as "no prejudice against entering another institution."

Item 23, *Institutional student load*, does not have much value so long as

Items 18, *Definition of credit unit*, and 21, *Number of hours required for graduation*, remain. Items 24, *Legibility and clarity*, and 25, *Minimum size of transcript*, mean little, for any communication is valueless unless understood.

The booklet is attractive in makeup and easy to read. The color of the cover, bright yellow, makes it easy to recognize. The paper is of good quality but not enough of it is filled; there are two completely blank pages and several only partially used. It is likely that corresponding pages in future issues will be filled with material submitted in response to invitations to members to report instances of forgeries to the Committee on Adequate Transcripts.

The Bibliography at the end of the publication indicates sources of discussion of separate items. Because of the arrangement of the twenty-five items and the accompanying explanations, the Bibliography will be needed only for historical purposes.

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The Efficiency of Freedom. Report of the Committee on Government and Higher Education: Milton S. Eisenhower, Chairman. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1959. Pp. viii + 44. \$1.00.

In recent years, many educational leaders and observers of the American system of higher education have become convinced that the legal autonomy of governing boards of public colleges and universities is being eroded by an expansion of administrative supervision from the agencies of state government. The concern of the educators became so strong that early in 1957 the Committee on Government and Higher Education was organized under the auspices of the Fund for the Advancement of Education to study the changing relationship between state government and public institutions of higher education.

In general, *The Efficiency of Freedom* outlines three basic objectives of the Committee: (1) to define the relationships that should properly exist between public officials and state institutions of higher education; (2) to identify the principal areas in which state control over higher education has appeared to exceed proper limits and thus to lead to unwarranted political or bureaucratic intrusion into educational policies or effective educational administration; and (3) to suggest remedial lines of action.

It cannot be stressed too strongly (in view of some criticism that we shall voice later) that this is the most attractive and able manifesto of recent years on behalf of "the preservation of freedom and independence of our public institutions of higher learning." It is doubtful that the poli-

ticians (who are the main object of attack here) will ever read it. But the proponents of the principle involved should now consolidate their ranks and find renewed strength and hope from the lofty appeal presented here.

Let us note, however, that most, if not all, of the present work is but an ideological appeal evolved around "some vital principles of freedom for education." We would like to see here a series of substantial props of historical evidence, some of which might sound trivial and could be easily dismissed, but which could put brakes on the high principles involved. It might be true that "to the good fortune of our society, the early American schools were granted a great measure of autonomy, and the tradition then established has persisted." The principle might be good, but some of the applications of it have not always been the happy records of American educational history. In the field of higher education, what about such "minor" aspects of the application of the principle as the inability to get rid of utter incompetents, at best, and of the acknowledged and "fifth amendment" stooges of the Kremlin, at worst? One can always claim that the principle is more important than such "incidentals"; but should not these annoying deviations be considered as, strange to say, they might eventually help to destroy the very principle itself if ignored?

Here comes the eternal dilemma of tying the ideology, its "what ought to be," to "what is." Since the present document is hardly concerned with such sidetracks, we might be unfair to mention them. All in all, the document even envisions such possibilities: "It is apparent that a potential threat of damage to these principles is always present." As a manifesto suggesting how to bridge the approaches to the whole problem between the state officials and the independent lay board of trustees, this little book is a landmark.

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Sylvia Dean Harbert, *College Registrar As a Career*. (Vocational and Professional Monographs, No. 103.) Cambridge, Massachusetts: Bellman Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. 20. \$1.00.

In view of the recent surge of interest in the work of the registrar and admissions officer, there is probably a waiting audience for a study in depth of the role and functions of these officers. During the past year, six new studies have come to our attention. They differ not only in scope, in orientation, and in readiness for publication, but also in scholarship and in reader appeal.

The booklet by Miss Harbert, now Dean of Admissions at Wesleyan College in Macon, Georgia, and previously registrar at the University of

Tampa, is not a critical study, but a vocational monograph. The writer apparently directs it to persons who have not chosen a career and who may want to know what a college registrar does, what he earns, how he was prepared for his present job, and what his chances are of getting a better one.

It is by no means a propaganda document. The registrar's life seems dull and routine, and Miss Harbert paints the financial picture in darker-than-life colors. The second sentence under the title *Salaries* reads: "The median salary for registrars in all types of institutions in 1956 was \$5,230." The source of this information is not directly cited, but it may be one of the bibliographical references, namely, American Council on Education Research Bulletin, *Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges*, 1956.

The reviewer takes exception to this figure on three counts: (1) A median without any indication of the distribution is almost meaningless. (2) A "registrar" as used in Miss Harbert's study may be responsible for admissions, or for records and registration, or for all of these. This causes confusion throughout the study, but nowhere more serious than here, as you cannot discuss salary until you know what kind of job complex you are talking about. (3) A 1956 reference is inexcusable when more recent data were at hand in two publications: (a) *Higher Education Planning and Management Data 1957-58*, Circular #517, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, by W. Robert Bokelman; and (b) *Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges and Junior Colleges 1957-1958*, Research Report 1958-R 1, National Education Association, by Roy C. Maul.

Information in these publications shows the variation among institutions of different sizes and different types of control. It also permits comparison of the salaries of administrative personnel with those of the teaching ranks.

As one would expect, Miss Harbert displays familiarity with her subject matter and with the profession at large. She makes liberal reference to persons and publications of AACRAO. The section on professional organizations lists our regional associations, and the section on professional publications includes COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY, the *Glossary*, and the *Handbook*.

Though some may find this a useful pamphlet for reference, this writer feels that it lacks appeal as a guidance monograph. It was hard to follow the topics listed under "Duties of the Registrar" because of the seeming lack of organization. On the second reading, the reason for this disjointed effect became apparent—the order is alphabetical, i.e., Admissions, Catalog, Committee, etc. Organization by work flow or some other inner relationship would have made for more interesting reading. Alphabetizing is carried to its virtual limits in this sentence: "The Registrar places emphasis

upon: alertness, community activities participation, cooperation, coordination, courtesy, effectiveness, efficiency, enthusiasm, friendliness, helpfulness, leadership, punctuality, service and sympathy."

In our judgment, the booklet devotes a disproportionate amount of space to the historical background; and the flat statements, e.g., "The Registrar streamlines," "The Registrar keeps," "The Registrar clarifies," leave the impression of a static situation.

There are many reasons why a definitive study of the role of the registrar and admissions officer should be undertaken. Let us hope that it may be characterized by sound scholarship, and by good, if not elegant writing; let us even dare hope that it will have vitality. Registrars and admissions officers operate at the very heart of American higher education. Our offices, because they are central, contain information that may be of critical importance in the development of institutional policy. It is our job to organize the information and present it to the right people at the right time. Here is a formula for excitement and stimulation; not for dull routine and the status quo.

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In the Journals

E. T.

The question "What Would You Do If You Were a Trustee . . .?" has some good answers in an article by Paul H. Davis in the No. 8 issue of the 1959 Series of *Memo to the board*. The trustees of our colleges and universities are responsible for the quality of our education. In most instances where an institution seems to be lagging, it is not the president but the trustees who are not performing up to the requirements of their position.

A trustee should be able and willing to give up to twenty-five hours a month of his time to the work of the board. He should see that he has job descriptions of the trustees, of the president, and of the college itself. One of the duties of the president is to supply the board with staff service. The board at Pennsylvania State University does most of its work through committees. Each committee is assigned a top member of the administration for staff service. The president himself services only the executive committee and the board as a whole.

Each trustee shares a responsibility for basic policy questions before the board but, in addition, each should be assigned one, and only one, identifiable, principal duty. Mr. Davis gives examples of a trustee who worked with the neighboring area, another who wrote Stanford into the wills of its friends, and another who interviews students.

A board's membership should include at least one member from the faculty of another college or university. The board needs more than one member who understands education because he works at it. It is hazardous to have members of the college's own faculty for they would be working both under and over the president.

The board should have a rotation and retirement plan. Mr. Davis suggests that one-tenth of new trustees should be added each year. Retired trustees on honorary status can and do continue active and effective service as nonvoting members.

The trustees should see that the college has an academic plan to which it holds firm through current fads and fancies. They should also insist on a financial plan that is good for ten years or more.

A trustee should visit at least two other colleges or universities each year and he should visit classes in his own college as well as elsewhere. He should read articles on education in the various professional magazines.

Mr. Davis points out that the world's future may be dependent upon the trustees of the colleges and universities for the colleges not only teach the leaders, but they also teach the teachers and the administrators of the primary and secondary schools.

Reprints of this article are available, in quantity without charge, from the Editor of *Memo to the board*, Box 1957, Albany 1, New York.

In the Summer Issue, 1959, of *School and Society*, Tyrus Hillway of Colorado State College in Greeley reports on "What Professors Want in a President." His study summarizes the answers to a questionnaire which was sent to 500 full professors in 93 colleges and universities. Of the desirable characteristics, integrity was listed most often in first place. This was followed by intellectual ability, and the ability to organize and lead. Of all the undesirable characteristics, Mr. Hillway found almost overwhelming agreement upon a dictatorial or undemocratic attitude. Other undesirable traits mentioned most often were dishonesty and insincerity, weakness as educator and scholar, and vacillation in organizing and leading. Mr. Hillway's summary of the ideal college president, as far as the professors are concerned, is a person of unquestioned personal and professional integrity and of superior intellectual ability and scholarly attainment; an exponent of the democratic method in management who also has the strength of character to organize and lead; a warm and friendly person with high intellectual and moral ideals and a positive educational philosophy; one who is objective and fair in his dealings with other people and who represents a superior degree of culture and good breeding; and one who displays firmness and self-confidence rather than vacillation in his leadership.

Interestingly enough, the professors did not mention the ability to raise and handle money. While the academic attainments of the president were considered very important, the personal characteristics of the man were of most concern.

Possibilities for working independent study into an academic time schedule are considered by Sumner C. Hayward in "New Approaches to Collegiate Liberal Arts—Part II: College-Wide Independent Study" in the May 1959 issue of *Liberal Education*. Mr. Hayward considers the present method of scheduling classes on M-W-F or T-Th-S a two-college system on a two-day alternating cycle in which students have regular instruction and do independent study on alternate days. He proposes schedules in which these alternating cycles of instruction and study would be longer than two days and would include vacation time. He describes a three-month cycle (it actually takes four months) in which the student would receive two months of regular instruction (one at the beginning of the cycle and one at the end) with one month of independent study and one month of vacation between. The faculty member would have a different class monthly, having the same class before and after its independent study and vacation periods. A student body of 2000 divided into two colleges of 1000 each could be educated with only 1500 students on the campus at any

one time. (1000 in classes and 500 doing independent study). Mr. Hayward says, "A faculty which under a traditional program could educate only a little over 1000 students could thus educate 2000 students." The college would operate twelve months of the year. The faculty vacations would be broken into two single-month and one double-month period and the student vacations into three one month periods. Because this would make it difficult for students to obtain work during vacation periods, Mr. Hayward thinks teams to hold down twelve-month jobs might be worked out. Such plans might even be worked into the academic program.

With a longer three-quarter cycle, one college would be on campus for two quarters or six months of regular instruction while two equal sized groups in the other college spent alternate quarters in independent study and vacation.

Mr. Hayward lists a great many questions that arise. Would independent study strengthen or weaken the student? What proportion of regular instruction to independent study would be best? What problems would the broken vacations, which would come in winter months as well as summer, raise for students and faculty families? Could independent study be done away from the campus? Could the college plant be maintained adequately if used twelve months of every year? Could students be motivated to study during hot summer months? Would such a program be disconcerting to the faculty member? Would it be necessary to have an "independent study instructor" for the year? Mr. Hayward says that the reader can undoubtedly add to the list. This reviewer would ask, "Is it conceivable that a teacher, on the three-month cycle plan, for instance, could ever use anything other than the straight lecture method? With or without an 'independent study instructor,' would a teacher ever get to know his students or his classes?" Perhaps that is something we are preparing to forfeit in this day of large classes and TV instruction.

Eric A. Walker, president of Pennsylvania State University, writes on "Quality in Quantity" in the April 1959 issue of *The Educational Record*. The concern engendered by the estimate that college and university enrollment will double in the next ten years and the fright of Russia's advances in science and technology have been expressed by criticism of education, much of it destructive. On the assumption that quality and quantity do not mix, some say we can choose to educate a few people exceedingly well or to educate a larger number somewhat less well; and since we cannot do both, we must concentrate our energies and our resources on the education of an intellectual elite. This assumes a single, fixed standard of excellence (private college-preparatory schools and colleges with high reputations and rather restrictive objectives), which gives rise to unfortunate prejudices. One of the prejudices relates to size. The quality of the instruction depends

on the quality of the teaching, not on the size of the institution. A low teacher-student ratio is not necessary for superior instruction. The prejudice that certain curricula and subject matter are more respectable than others weakens valuable and important programs. We need quality education for plumbers as well as philosophers. There is no evidence to support the prejudice that public institutions are inferior to private institutions. And the most dangerous of all these prejudices is the one that equates quality in education with the IQ of the student rather than with the student's progress.

These prejudices either force an unhealthy similarity on our institutions or force some institutions or programs to bear the stigma of inferiority. With the single standard, we try to provide an average student with an average education to prepare him for an average life with an average job. There are no average students, there is no average life, and there are no average jobs, so there should be no average education. We need more diversity rather than less. Because the scientific revolution has replaced human labor with machines, everyone must operate at a higher level of mental activity. Education must be provided at increasingly higher levels to increasingly greater numbers of people. Mr. Walker describes three groups needed for progress which he labels the innovators, the problem-solvers, and the caretakers, for which separate and distinct types of education must be designed. None can be considered inferior and all must be of high quality. Courses and curricula need to be designed to meet the different capacities of different human beings to educate all students to the highest possible level. Each institution should be measured in terms of its own aims and objectives. For instance, a technical institute should be considered inferior only when it fails to produce excellent technicians, not because it is a technical institute. Mr. Walker concludes, "We must develop an educational system that makes it possible for every American to become a first-rate something. We must have quality *and* quantity—a quality marked by the search for an ideal after necessity has been satisfied and mere usefulness has been achieved; a quantity that makes it possible for each person to reach his maximum development. We must have quality *in quantity*. The challenge is for mass excellence . . . it is civilization itself that is at stake."

Melville J. Homfeld, Superintendent of the Menlo Park City School District in California, considers the problem of "Schools for Everything" in the March 1959 issue of *The Atlantic*. By taking on responsibilities that should be met by the parents, the churches, the communities, and other professions, the public schools have an ever-expanding program. "Can the role of public education include the responsibility for the physical, social,

emotional, and spiritual as well as academic instruction of children, or might some of these be handled better by other institutions?" asks Mr. Homfeld. Driver education, education for marriage, in-service training for technical jobs, child care, and therapy for emotional and social shortcomings are some of the "doubtful school tasks" he lists. Changes that are coming in our schools include more grouping of children for instruction, more academic subject matter in our curriculums, a longer school year, elimination of some things from the curriculum, and federal aid to education. "The schools should set goals that are attainable and should not overcommit their ability to serve. Let them refuse to accept responsibilities which are beyond their capabilities and refuse to undertake so many duties that none is thoroughly performed."

The Superior Student, the News letter of the Inter-University Committee on the Superior Student, is a publication you will not want to miss as more and more attention is given to grouping students and developing programs for those of high ability. In the March 1959 issue, William S. Weedon of the Corcoran Department of Philosophy describes the "Liberal Arts Seminars" at the University of Virginia. The four three-hour seminars, which are free electives, require a great deal of "tough" reading and appeal to the student with intellectual fortitude and curiosity. No more than 14 students are in any section and each section has two faculty leaders to break up any tendency on the part of the students to look for a definitive answer to a discussion question. The responsibility for initiating and conducting the discussion, and for discovering the basic problems and the basic ideas in the works read, belongs to the students. The faculty members are fundamentally "moderators" who assist the students to gain habits associated with rational discussion. The students are required to write a weekly paper upon a preassigned topic. The books read in Seminar I are classical Greek texts in English translation. Most works are read in their entirety; the notion of "sampling" is avoided. The other three seminars span the whole period of Western civilization: one in the natural sciences and mathematics, one in the social sciences and ethics, and the fourth in philosophy and literature.

In the same issue, Louis Filler, Professor of American Civilization at Antioch College, cautions against the use of the Great Books as a basis for "Honors Programs." There is nothing wrong with the Great Books but there are many other writings that have not been weighed and found wanting. "They have been forgotten, and are judged, when encountered, with remoteness and distrust." Non-Great Books are part of the same context as the Great Books. The author's protest is not against the Great Books, but against a point of view which hardens judgments and puts a premium on

pretentious assumptions of superiority. The Great Books need to be brought up against others of their own time, other books that are not different in kind, and, often, not even in degree.

"An Experimental Program at Brooklyn College" is described in the same issue by Murray Horowitz, Assistant to the Dean of Faculty. Carefully screened high school seniors are allowed to enroll for one course each in the College, with the option of auditing or taking the course for credit. The purpose is to permit them to progress at an accelerated rate upon matriculating at the College. The eighteen students who tried the program this year experienced no difficulty in keeping up with the classes. Because of the success of these students this year, many more students from a number of high schools will participate in the program during the coming year.

The plans for the "New Honors Program at the University of Illinois" are also described in this issue. From three to five per cent of the entering class will be chosen on the basis of academic training, class standing, recommendations, and available test results (for example, National Merit Scholarships and College Entrance Examination Board tests) from high school and a personal interview. The group will be taught in special sections designed to challenge their full academic capabilities. A student may be dropped from the group at the beginning of any semester, or others may be added.

Reported to Us

M. M. C.

E. B. Lemon of Oregon State College retired in June, 1959 after 52 years at that institution. Four of those years were as a student, with the other 48 as a member of the staff, 37 of which were in two top administrative positions, Registrar and Dean of Administration. He had the longest continuous administrative service of any staff member at Oregon State. He had been closely connected with practically every major phase of the college's development over the past 50 years, in which OSC has grown from a student body of 800 to 8000 and from an obscure institution to one of the leading land-grant universities in the United States. Dean Lemon has seen this impressive development and has been a vital force in it for more than half of the life of Oregon State.

On July 1, 1959, Louis G. Guenther became Director of Admissions at Wake Forest College, Winston-Salem, North Carolina. Prior to that time he had been Registrar at Mary Washington College of the University of Virginia.

Harold Kuhlman became Director of Admissions at Kalamazoo College August 1, 1959. He is succeeded as Registrar at Colorado Woman's College by P. C. Nicholson.

On July 1, 1959 Edward Walter Lautenschlager succeeded B. F. D. Runk as Registrar at the University of Virginia. Dr. Runk is now Dean of the University.

Juniata College has named Hans Zbinden as Registrar. Mr. Zbinden was an instructor in the modern languages at that institution. He took over the registrar's duties, which had been handled on a part-time assignment by A. William Engel, Jr., who served as Acting Registrar after the resignation of James L. Bray in June, 1958.

O. W. Hascall has resigned as Director of Admissions at the University of Colorado to become Regional Director of the American College Testing Program. He will co-ordinate a 14-state region for ACT, which has developed a new college admissions test.

By action of the 1959 Michigan Legislature, Central Michigan College has been given university status. Effective June 1, 1959, Central Michigan College became Central Michigan University.

On June 13, 1959, York Junior College was fully accredited by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Charging that universal public education "does not always live up to expectations," Dean Edward K. Graham of Boston University, writing on the arts and sciences in the urban university in a recent issue of the *Boston University Graduate Journal*, also predicted that the higher proportion of the American population which will be exposed to the arts and sciences in the future "is likely to have an adverse rather than a favorable influence on public attitudes."

"We may infer this from a rather startling phenomenon that followed the introduction of universal education through the public schools. It has been pointed out that we should have anticipated a raising of the level of public taste, and general interest in the civilizing arts, as we approached universal literacy. What we got, within thirty years after the enabling legislation, was the yellow press and the tabloids.

"This is not intended to suggest that universal public education is a bad thing, simply that it does not always live up to expectations. This last fact may say something to us with respect to the arts and sciences. For example, the most significant thing about our public schools is that virtually every able-bodied person goes through them. This is a fairly recent development. It might be expected that general public approbation of the schools would follow. Quite the contrary. Sharp criticism of the schools has increased from generation to generation almost in proportion to the increased percentage of the population that has been exposed to them."

Dean Graham added that "this is an interesting thought as we move into a period when a vastly greater proportion of the adult population than ever before will have been exposed to a college education, and when the one common and binding factor of college experience will be some degree of exposure to the arts and sciences. It seems reasonable to assume that there will be sharp criticism, and we should be able to predict, with a fair degree of accuracy, where it will be directed. Colleges and universities will not be accused of producing inferior engineers, or inept home economists, or bad physicians. The criticism will be couched in more general terms, the product of the floating antagonism that comes to focus upon the familiar and established parts of our society that have somehow failed, at least in the public eye, to accomplish what was expected of them.

"The target will be the arts and sciences, not only because they are the familiar core but also because they are the embodiment of those disciplines which are at the heart of man's knowledge and understanding of his social and cultural environment, of the physical world in which he exists,

and of the world of living things of which he is a part. The tremendous public response to *Why Johnny Can't Read* may, in the next decade, be duplicated with respect to a book yet to be written. It will be about colleges and universities, and the title will probably be *Why Johnny Can't Think*."

Dean Graham continued: "Of course, we are well aware that distractions from the arts and sciences, rather than the arts and sciences themselves, will be in large measure responsible for why Johnny can't think. The point is that the public won't know it. There is concrete evidence that the arts and sciences will make a happy choice of a target."

A significant number of students in this year's entering class at Columbia College are expected to take up their new studies with nearly a year's college work to their credit. Columbia College faculty has voted to expand the College's participation in the Advanced Placement Program, which enables college students to obtain credit for college-level work completed in high school.

A sizable portion of the more than 600 freshman students entering last September will be permitted to apply for credit up to 24 points, instead of the 6 points previously allowed. These credits will be applied to the 126 points needed for the A.B. degree. The exact amount of advanced credit will not be determined until the end of the freshman year and will be based on the student's performance in his college work as well as his score on the College Entrance Board Advanced Placement Examinations.

Placement at Columbia College in advanced courses, but without extra credit, has long been a practice through freshman placement tests. Examination materials presented by students from the Advanced Placement Program have facilitated and enlarged this practice.

In 1957 Columbia began to grant up to six points of credit toward the A.B. degree for college-level work accomplished in secondary schools and confirmed by scores on the Advanced Placement Examinations of the CEEB. In that year, 57 students offered Advanced Placement Examinations for consideration, of whom 46 received advanced placement and point credit while the others received either advanced placement or advanced credit. In 1958, there were 64 advanced candidates with 53 receiving advanced placement and point credit.

In 1958, more than 200 colleges reported that they had established policies of granting both point credit toward the college degree and advanced placement in college courses. An additional 150 reported that they would grant advanced placement without college credit.

According to Dean John G. Palfrey, in 1957 three colleges alone received over one hundred advanced placement students each, four more received over fifty students each. However, in the same year, only 33 colleges in the entire country received as many as 10 such students. Dean Palfrey

said educators have noted that students, even when given liberal advanced placement, respond more often by taking more advanced work than by attempting to speed their exit from college.

An able college student can put his major effort into studies of history, literature, sociology, or other nonscience fields and still do well in medical school, according to a study of 1390 men who graduated from Harvard College from 1949 to 1956. Among graduates of Harvard College, those who concentrated in the social sciences and humanities have been as readily admitted to medical schools as those who majored in premedical subjects.

Those who majored in "pre-med" work as undergraduates did better in the first year of medical school, but by the third year those whose undergraduate programs were broader had almost equal class standings. Those who had studied the social sciences actually ranked ahead of the "pre-meds" at Harvard Medical School.

Other highlights of the study include the following:

Senior grades in college give the best forecast of medical school grades for men who went to public high schools; the Medical College Admission Test gives a better prediction of the medical school grades of students who went to private secondary schools.

Of the top honors students in college—those who achieved a degree "magna cum laude" or "summa cum laude"—65 per cent ranked in the top third of their class during the first year of medical school; but 42 per cent of the "cum laude" graduates from college, and 29 per cent of the non-honors graduates also stood in the top third of their medical school class during the first year.

In general, students graduating with honors received higher grades than the average for their medical school. The non-honors graduates from Harvard College received grades about like those of the average students in medical school.

The above study is reported by Dean K. Whitla, director of Harvard's Office of Tests. While medical schools have been proving their increased awareness of the importance of a liberal arts background, Dr. Whitla commented, "the students have been moving increasingly toward 'pre-med' concentration. In 1949, 47 per cent took 'pre-med' courses; by 1956, 67 per cent did. 'Quite clearly, a student should concentrate in an area of study which holds the most interest for him,'" commented Dr. Whitla. "It will be his record, not his field of concentration, that the medical school admission committee will evaluate."

Dean Kenneth Anderson of the School of Education at the University of Kansas gave his views on the relation between academic and professional training for education students following complaints voiced by some college

presidents at the 1959 annual meeting of the Association of American Colleges' teacher education panel. Many of the college presidents at the meeting felt that American elementary and high school teachers would teach better with fewer education courses and more training in their subjects.

"We think that it is not a question of academic preparation versus professional education training, but that a fusion and strengthening of method and content is in order in all academic areas," Dean Anderson said. He indicated that he was strongly in favor of extensive academic training so that teachers would know what they are teaching. However, the 20 semester hours of education courses required for secondary teachers in Kansas are necessary. "At KU, we feel that the academic work our students take in the School of Education is most important. Evidence of this is the deep penetration we emphasize in academic work in our new math major and the language arts and social studies programs in the school."

The concept of quality or excellence in American education at all levels is the kind that enables each individual to attain the maximum degree of competence that his ability permits. "But as I see it, the American people have paid lip service to this concept without putting it into operation. We must modernize the training of teachers in our colleges and universities in order to equip them academically and professionally to present what they teach in an effective and challenging way," Dr. Anderson stated.

A test designed to evaluate study methods in place of the usual freshman orientation session was administered to all freshmen in the College of Arts and Sciences, University of Pennsylvania, prior to last spring term. "The decision to give this test as a service to freshmen is based on the conviction that many students do not obtain results in their academic work commensurate with their abilities," Dr. Robert K. Bishop, personnel officer of the College, said. Called the California Study Methods Survey, the test was developed by Professor Harold D. Carter of the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of California at Berkeley. "It is our desire and hope that all College students may achieve maximum results in terms of their individual abilities, and that the results of the survey will aid us in reaching decisions which rest upon our evaluation of the efficiency with which students work," Dr. Bishop concluded.

The number of foreign students studying in the United States has increased 38 per cent in the last five years according to a survey by the Institute of International Education. The 47,245 students from 131 countries registered in U. S. colleges and universities in 1958-59 represent a 9 per cent increase over the number for the preceding year and an 86 per cent increase over that of the academic year 1948-49. According to all available

statistics the current figure represents the largest foreign student population in any country.

The post-war period has also produced a great spurt in the exchange of university teachers and scholars, the Institute revealed in its fifth edition of *Open Doors*. In five years, the number of foreign professors teaching in our schools has tripled. American colleges and universities reported 1937 foreign faculty members in 1958-59 in comparison with 635 in 1954-55. With 1842 American faculty abroad, this was the first year on record that we "imported" more professors than we "exported."

The sharp increase in both "export" and "import" faculty figures reflected the U. S.'s growing concern with education in the physical sciences. Nine hundred and seven, or 47 per cent of the foreign professors brought to American schools were in this field. This was double the number of foreign science professors here in 1957-58. The number of American science professors who went abroad to teach and do research was 389, an increase of 43 per cent over last year.

"The increasing percentage of foreign students attracted by our science courses seems to show that the United States is achieving new status in science education," said IIE President Kenneth Holland in commenting on the survey. This was the first time that the physical and natural sciences placed third in fields of interest among foreign students. In previous years, it had scored fourth, fifth, and even sixth, always trailing behind the social sciences, and sometimes behind medicine and business administration.

Well over half a million American students, from the first grade through college, are receiving part of their classroom instruction by television, according to a joint report published by the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education. As of February 1, 1959, according to the report titled *Teaching by Television*, 117 colleges and universities offered courses for credit via television, 569 school districts made regular use of televised instruction, and 241 colleges and universities offered credit for the nationwide television course in modern physics, "Continental Classroom."

The report describes educational-television experiments that have been supported by the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education involving more than 25 colleges and universities and 100 school systems and more than 100,000 students and their teachers. During the past five years, the Fund and the Ford Foundation have provided financial support amounting to more than \$10 million for more than fifty different experiments at the school and college level involving the use of television as a medium of instruction.

"Practically every course in the school and college curriculum, from first-grade arithmetic to college zoology, is being taught somewhere over

television," according to the report. It points out that television has "unique advantages as a medium of instruction. First, it can vastly extend the reach of the nation's best teachers; and second, it can bring to students educational experiences that are quite beyond the potential of conventional means of instruction."

Although final conclusions about television's ultimate role in education cannot yet be drawn, the report said, "the results of experimentation to date have been very encouraging." Experiments supported by the Foundation and the Fund, it went on, show that students learn as much—and in some cases more—from televised instruction as from conventional instruction. Most of the experiments show no significant difference in achievement between students in television courses and students in regular classes.

The report notes that "today the question is no longer *whether* television can play an important role in education. The question that now needs fuller exploration is *what kind* of a role television can play most effectively." "Television is not a panacea that will cure all the ills of American education or solve all its problems. It has been described, and rightly so, as the most important new educational tool since the invention of movable type, but like the textbook the new medium is essentially just that—a tool. Like any tool, it can be misused or badly used. But if it is wisely and imaginatively used, television can play a major role in broadening and enriching the education of American students at all levels of schooling."

Regional Associations

ALABAMA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The annual meeting of the Alabama Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held at Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Alabama, on April 11, 1959. The principal speaker was William F. Adams, University of Alabama, President-Elect of AACRAO.

Following Dean Adams' address an open discussion of common problems was held. The following matters were presented:

1. High school form for presenting credits to colleges.
2. Certification of credits to Alabama State Department of Education.
3. Granting of military credit.
4. Filing and preservation of term grades.

Officers elected for the coming year are as follows:

President: Ralph Tanner, Walker College, Jasper

Vice-President: Thomas W. McClain, Troy State College, Troy

Secretary-Treasurer: Mrs. Marion Anthony, University of Alabama Center, Birmingham

FLORIDA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The fourth annual meeting of the Florida Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held Wednesday, April 29, 1959, on the campus of Jacksonville University, Jacksonville, Florida. At the opening session, reports were made by the newly opened junior colleges in Florida: Central Junior College, Ocala; Gulf Coast Junior College, Panama City; Manatee Junior College, Bradenton; North Florida Junior College, Madison; and St. Johns River Junior College, Palatka. Following this report was a round table discussion of problems and practices of registrars and admissions officers.

The principal speaker at the final session was James K. Hitt, Vice-President in Charge of Regional Associations and Membership Promotion of AACRAO.

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

President: G. W. Allen, Jr., Dean and Registrar, Chipola Junior College, Marianna

Vice-President: R. H. Lewis, Registrar, Florida Christian College, Tampa

Secretary-Treasurer: Barbara Rowe, Registrar, Stetson University, Deland

The 1960 meeting of the Florida Association will be held on April 27, 1960 in Tampa.

LOUISIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The spring meeting of the Louisiana Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held at Northeast Louisiana State College, Monroe, on Friday, March 6, 1959. The principal speaker was Dr. John A. Hunter, Dean of the Junior Division, Louisiana State University, who spoke on "The Role of the Registrar."

A general discussion of topics of mutual interest followed Dr. Hunter's address. The following topics were discussed:

1. Four point system of grade points.
2. Relationship of registrar to the faculty.
3. Reports of student progress to local boards.
4. Reports to high school principals concerning college practices.
5. Policy regarding change of grade.
6. Policy with regard to acceptance of students ineligible to return to other institutions.

Officers elected for 1959-60 are:

President: James L. Powell, Registrar, F. T. Nicholls State College, Thibodaux

Vice-President: Mrs. Nelle M. Brown, Registrar, Centenary College, Shreveport

Secretary-Treasurer: Mrs. Dorothy Calhoon, Registrar, Louisiana College, Pineville

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The annual meeting of the Michigan Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held at Eastern Michigan College, Ypsilanti, on Friday, November 14, 1958.

The morning session was devoted to a symposium on the general topic "MACRAO Looks at Its Function in a Space Age." Papers were presented by the following:

Clyde Vroman, Director of Admissions, University of Michigan, "National Frontiers."

Ted McCarrel, Vice-President in Charge of Professional Activities, AACRAO, "National Frontiers."

Molly Parrish, Registrar, Alma College, Alma, "The Challenge of Space Age Secondary School Education."

Nicholas Schreiber, Ann Arbor High School, Ann Arbor, "Methods of Acceleration and Enrichment in the Secondary Schools."

Henry Pixley, Associate Dean of Administration, Wayne State University, Detroit, "The Admissions Officer and Registrar as Researcher."

The afternoon meeting was given over to a business session. Officers elected for 1959-60 are the following:

President: Sister Miriam Fidelis, Registrar, Marygrove College, Detroit

Vice-President: Everett Marshall, Registrar, Eastern Michigan College, Ypsilanti

Secretary: Maurice Overholt, Flint Junior College, Flint

Treasurer: Stanley Ward, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

The next meeting of the Michigan Association will be at Alma College, Alma, on Friday, November 13, 1959.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND OFFICERS OF ADMISSION

The twenty-seventh annual meeting of the Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars and Officers of Admission was held in conjunction with the meeting of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on Saturday, November 29, 1958, at Atlantic City.

The meeting opened with a question box session under the chairmanship of Norma J. Azlein of the University of Maryland. A panel discussion of Student Retention and Withdrawals was chaired by Joseph Connor of Georgetown University. Members of the panel were T. Sherman Stanford of Pennsylvania State University and Earl Iffert, author of the report entitled *Retention and Withdrawal of College Students*, a publication of the United States Office of Education.

Two parallel sessions followed: (1) "Case Studies in Admission," led by Thomas P. Robinson of New York University, and (2) "Machine Operations," under the chairmanship of Ernest Whitworth of the University of Pennsylvania.

President Herman A. Spindt of AACRAO gave the luncheon address.

Following the luncheon the Association elected the following officers for 1958-59:

President: Herbert H. Williams, Cornell University

Vice-President: Henry F. Rossi, St. John's University

Secretary: Mildred Covey, Goucher College

The following officers continue:

Treasurer: Grace N. Brown, Hood College (second year of a two-year term)

Editor: Robert E. Tschan, Pennsylvania State University (third year of a three-year term)

Catherine R. Rich of Catholic University, Past President of MSACROA, remains a member of the Executive Committee.

The next meeting of the Association will be held Saturday, November 28, 1959, in Atlantic City.

MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

The Mississippi Association of College Registrars met at Millsaps College, Jackson, Mississippi on Wednesday, March 18, 1959. The program took the form of an informal discussion of topics of interest to those present. Officers elected for the coming year are as follows:

President: L. W. Marsalis, Mississippi State College for Women, Columbus

Vice-President: L.D. Furgerson, East Central Junior College, Decatur
Secretary-Treasurer: Mildred Herrin, Hinds Junior College, Raymond

The next meeting of the Mississippi Association will be March 16, 1960.

NEBRASKA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The spring meeting of the Nebraska Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held on the Doane College campus, Crete, on May 1, 1959. Dr. Donald Typer, President of Doane, presented the "Major Issues Facing Higher Education." Round table discussions followed in the course of the day on "Improving Types of College Day Programs," and "Implications of the New Testing that the Federal Government Will Underwrite."

Officers for the 1959-60 year will be:

President: F. H. Larson, Registrar, Nebraska State Teachers College, Peru

President-Elect: J. H. Horner, Registrar, Nebraska State Teachers College, Kearney

Secretary-Treasurer: Mrs. Irene Fenstermacher, Registrar, Luther Junior College, Wahoo

The fall meeting will be planned for October 16, 1959, at Concordia College, Seward.

NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The North Carolina Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers held its 35th annual meeting on November 5-6, 1958 in Durham. The principal speaker was William F. Adams, President-Elect of AACRAO.

A question box session provided opportunity for discussion of common problems. The business session was given over principally to discussion and adoption of a new constitution for the North Carolina Association.

Officers elected for the coming year are as follows:

President: Robert Chapman, Registrar, Mars Hill College, Mars Hill

Vice-President: R. L. Tuthill, Registrar, Duke University, Durham

Secretary: Margaret Simpson, Registrar, Salem College, Winston-Salem

Treasurer: Mrs. Margaret Perry, Assistant Registrar, Wake Forest College, Winston-Salem

OHIO COLLEGE REGISTRARS

The Ohio College Registrars met at Youngstown, October 15, 16, and 17, 1958. Principal addresses were given by Harold J. Bowers, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction for Ohio on the topic "Our Teacher Supply and Training Program," Dr. J. Fred Essick, Superintendent of Schools, Youngstown, on the topic "So, You Have Problems?" and Robert E. Hewes, Registrar of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Chairman of AACRAO's Committee on Research and Service.

A panel discussion was also held on the general subjects of selective admission, and salaries of registrars.

Officers elected for the coming year are as follows:

President: Mrs. Alina Markowski, Registrar, University of Toledo, Toledo

Vice-President: Robert W. Tripp, Registrar, Mount Union College, Alliance

Secretary-Treasurer: Glenn Van Wormer, Registrar, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green

PACIFIC COAST ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers met in Long Beach, California on November 9-12, 1958. The program included a workshop for new members, and topical workshops on the following: Foreign credentials, legal questions, foreign credit evaluation, transcripts and related problems, transfer credit and its evaluation, honors programs, advanced placement and advanced standing, early admissions and early acceptance.

Principal speakers included the following:

Herman A. Spindt, President, AACRAO

Dr. Howard Wilson, Dean, School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles, "Social Background of Educational Issues"

Dr. James F. Bonner, Professor of Biology, California Institute of Technology, "The World Food and Population Problem"

William C. Smyser, Registrar, Miami University, Past President of AACRAO

The Pacific Coast Association will not schedule a regular meeting in 1959, but instead will devote its energies toward getting organized to host the 1960 annual meeting of AACRAO in Los Angeles.

PUERTO RICO

Following is a report of the history of the founding of the Puerto Rico Association, and report of its first meeting.

With elections completed in April, a new group formally joined AACRAO. The Puerto Rican Regional Association is the newest member of the regional group.

In December, 1957, Sister James Cecilia, C.S.J., of Catholic University of Puerto Rico, sent out letters to the registrars and admissions officers of the five other colleges of the Island asking them if they would be interested in organizing a regional association of AACRAO. The replies were unanimously in favor of the formation, and each one was enthusiastic in his response to the idea. Catholic University played host to the first organizational meeting on April 15, 1958, at which time plans were discussed for formal organization.

By the time the date for the second preliminary meeting rolled around, Sister James Cecilia had been assigned to the States, and Sister Anne Theodora had succeeded her as Registrar in Catholic University. Sister took up where her predecessor had left off, and the second organizational meeting was held at Catholic University on October 22, 1958. At that meeting, Frederick Kidder, Registrar of Interamerican University, agreed to act as temporary secretary and Sister Anne Theodora agreed to draw up a constitution for the approval of the members.

Preliminary copies of the proposed constitution were submitted to members for comments and correction; then the final constitution was adopted unanimously on April 8, 1959. Soon after, an election was held and the following members took office for 1959-1961 school years.

President: Sister Anne Theodora, C.S.J., Registrar, Catholic University of Puerto Rico

Vice-President: Mr. Guillermo H. Collazo, Admissions Officer, University of Puerto Rico

Secretary-Treasurer: Mrs. Rosa Llombart, Registrar, Puerto Rico Junior College

There are six institutions of higher learning on the Island of Puerto Rico, and all six have joined the Regional Association: University of

Puerto Rico, Río Piedras; College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts, Mayagüez; Catholic University of Puerto Rico, Ponce; Interamerican University, San German; College of the Sacred Heart, Santurce; and Puerto Rico Junior College, Río Piedras. At present there are twelve members active in the Regional Association.

TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

The meeting of the Tennessee Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was held in Nashville on March 18, 1959. Principal speakers included A. B. Cooper, Director of Certification and Teacher Education, and William F. Adams, President-Elect of AACRAO.

During a panel discussion on student enrollment the following subjects were presented: Enrolling the Foreign Student, Preregistration Patterns, and Enrollment Trends.

A. B. Cooper, Director of Certification and Teacher Education in the Tennessee Department of Education was elected to honorary membership.

Officers elected for the coming year as follows:

President: E. Claude Gardner, Registrar, Freed-Hardeman College, Henderson

Vice-President: R. P. Clark, Registrar, Memphis State University, Memphis

Secretary-Treasurer: Paul Riviere, Dean and Registrar, Tennessee Wesleyan College, Athens

AACRAO—TREASURER'S REPORT—FISCAL YEAR 1958-1959*

July 6, 1959

*The Executive Committee
American Association of Collegiate
Registrars and Admissions Officers*

GENTLEMEN:

Pursuant to your instructions, we have examined the Cash Receipts and Disbursements recorded in the books of account of AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS for the fiscal year June 1, 1958 to May 31, 1959.

The financial condition of the Association as at May 31, 1959 and 1958 is shown in comparative form in Exhibit A.

The Income and Expenses for the fiscal years ended May 31, 1959 and 1958 are detailed in Exhibit B.

Exhibit C and supporting Schedules C-1 to C-9, inclusive, are the Statement of Cash Received and Disbursed during the period June 1, 1958 to May 31, 1959.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF CONDITION—EXHIBIT A

This exhibit and supporting Schedules A-1 to A-3, inclusive, show the Assets, Liabilities, and Surplus Equity of the Association as at May 31, 1959 and May 31, 1958.

Cash—\$10,625.73—Comprises:

On deposit at Chemical Corn Exchange Bank of New York	\$ 3,355.19
Verified by direct correspondence and by reconciliation of statements received from the depository.	
In transit from the Penn-Sheraton Hotel, Pittsburgh	6,220.54
This amount was received and deposited in the Commonwealth Trust Company of Pittsburgh prior to the date of this report and confirmed by a validated deposit slip received from the bank.	
Funds Transferred to E. A. Batchelder, new Treasurer on May 15, 1959 and confirmed by a signed receipt.	1,000.00
Petty Cash Fund—acknowledged by a signed receipt from Edward M. Stout, Subscription Manager.	50.00
Total Cash at May 31, 1959	<u>\$10,625.73</u>

Investments—Securities—\$23,725.00—are detailed in Schedule A-1. These securities were transferred to the new Treasurer on May 15, 1959 and verified by a signed receipt in the presence of a notary. The security portfolio remained intact throughout the year under review.

Receivables—Sundry—\$1,198.00—are detailed in Schedule A-3. Of this amount, \$1,188.00 has been collected prior to the date of this report and receipt acknowledged by E. A. Batchelder, the new Treasurer. The unpaid balance, \$10.00, is due from Maxine Sullivan.

* The complete report may be inspected by members in the offices of the Executive Committee.

Special Purpose Fund—\$10,125.19—reflects a decrease of \$1,874.81 as compared to the May 31, 1958 Balance of \$12,000.00. Schedule A-2 itemizes the disbursements made from this Fund. The balance, \$10,125.19, at May 31, 1959, was in the Custody of the Treasurer of Fordham University and was transferred to E. A. Batchelder, the new Treasurer, on June 23, 1959.

The Surplus Equity as at May 31, 1959 was \$35,652.91 as compared with \$48,007.74 for the prior year or a net decrease of \$12,354.83. This amount represents the Net Loss as detailed in Exhibit B for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1959.

STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES—EXHIBIT B

This exhibit details the income and expenses for the fiscal years ended May 31, 1959 and May 31, 1958. The current year shows a Net Loss of (\$12,354.83) as compared to a Net Profit of \$12,662.47 for the prior year.

The details of the Operating Expenses, by classifications, are found in Schedules C-2 to C-9, inclusive.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—EXHIBIT C

This exhibit and supporting Schedules C-1 to C-9 review the Cash Receipts and Disbursements for the current fiscal year under review.

The Cash Receipts as recorded in the Records of the Treasurer were examined and all such recorded receipts were found to have been deposited in the account of the "American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers" in the Chemical Corn Exchange Bank, 199 Church Street, New York City. A summary of the cash receipts is shown in Exhibit C and detailed in Schedules C-1 to C-9, inclusive.

The Cash Disbursements as summarized in this exhibit and detailed in Schedules C-2 to C-9, inclusive, were examined and found to have been charged to the appropriate accounts. A test check was made of vouchers and invoices and all were found to be in order and properly accounted for.

Certification:

I hereby certify that the accounts of the AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS have been examined for the period June 1, 1958 to May 31, 1959; that all of the recorded cash receipts in the records of the Treasurer have been properly accounted for and deposited in the bank account under the Association's name; that all of the disbursements have been correctly accounted for; and that the attached Exhibit C reflects the receipts and disbursements for that period and the balance in the bank at the latter date.

Respectfully submitted

Edmund F. Bowen & Company
Certified Public Accountant
State of New York

Exhibit A

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS
COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF CONDITION

May 31, 1959 and 1958

ASSETS

	1959	1958
<i>Current Assets</i>		
Cash on Deposit	\$ 3,355.19	\$23,595.56
Cash in Transit	6,220.54	—
Petty Cash	50.00	150.00
Deposit with E. A. Batchelder—New Treasurer	1,000.00	—
Investment Securities Schedule A-1	23,725.00	23,725.00
Travelers Cheques	—	300.00
Receivable—Accounts Schedule A-3	1,198.00	13.00
<i>Total Current Assets</i>	<u>\$35,548.73</u>	<u>\$47,783.56</u>
<i>Special Purpose Fund Assets</i>		
Cash at Fordham University Schedule A-2	\$10,125.19	\$12,000.00
<i>Total Special Purpose Fund Assets</i>	<u>\$10,125.19</u>	<u>\$12,000.00</u>
<i>Fixed Assets</i>		
Furniture and Fixtures	\$ 248.18	\$ 248.18
<i>Total Fixed Assets</i>	<u>\$ 248.18</u>	<u>\$ 248.18</u>
<i>Total Assets</i>	<u>\$45,922.10</u>	<u>\$60,031.74</u>

LIABILITIES—RESERVE—EQUITY

<i>Current Liabilities</i>		
Federal Withholding Tax Payable	\$ 144.00	\$ 24.00
<i>Total Current Liabilities</i>	<u>\$ 144.00</u>	<u>\$ 24.00</u>
<i>Special Purpose Fund Reserve</i>		
Principal Remaining—Fund for Advancement of Education Schedule A-2	\$10,125.19	\$12,000.00
<i>Total Special Purpose Fund Reserve</i>	<u>\$10,125.19</u>	<u>\$12,000.00</u>
<i>Equity</i>		
Balance—June 1, 1958 and 1957	\$48,007.74	\$35,345.27
Net (Loss)—Income—Fiscal Years Ended May 31, 1959 and 1958 Exhibit B	(—\$12,354.83)	12,662.47
<i>Total Equity—May 13, 1959 and 1958</i>	<u>\$35,652.91</u>	<u>\$48,007.74</u>
<i>Total Liabilities—Reserve—Equity</i>	<u>\$45,922.10</u>	<u>\$60,031.74</u>

Exhibit B

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES

For Fiscal Years Ended May 31, 1959 and 1958

<i>Income</i>	1959	1958
Memberships	\$ 35,762.00	\$ 35,335.00
Subscriptions	1,226.50	1,091.35
Advertising	350.87*	442.61
Interest on Investments	636.20	519.62
Sundry	—	114.43
<i>Total Income</i>	<u>\$ 37,975.57</u>	<u>\$ 37,503.01</u>
<i>Expenses</i>		
General Administration	\$ 8,869.74	\$ 4,983.55
Convention (Income)—Expense—Net	265.84*	(340.66)
Editor's Office	8,889.24	7,720.78
Treasurer's Office	3,475.32	2,292.25
Committee on Evaluation and Standards	1,087.18	884.08
Committee on Regional Associations	2,866.49	1,590.44
Committee on Constitution and Bylaws	73.00	—
Committee on Special Projects	24,803.59	7,710.10
<i>Total Expenses</i>	<u>\$ 50,330.40</u>	<u>\$ 24,840.54</u>
<i>Net Loss—Fiscal Year Ended May 31, 1959</i>	<u><u>\$(12,354.83)</u></u>	
<i>Net Income—Fiscal Year Ended May 31, 1958</i>		<u><u>\$ 12,662.47</u></u>

* Includes Receivables.

Exhibit C

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

June 1, 1958 to May 31, 1959

Cash Balance—Chemical Corn Exchange Bank of N.Y. \$23,595.56

Add: Cash Receipts

Membership	Schedule C-1	\$35,762.00	
Subscriptions	Schedule C-1	1,226.50	
Advertising	Schedule C-1	240.37	
Interest on Investments	Schedule C-1	636.20	
Travelers Cheques on hand deposited on May 6, 1959	Schedule C-1	400.00	
1958 Convention Receivable Received after 5/31/58		13.00	
1959 Convention	Schedule C-3	14,090.40	
Sale—"Credit Given"	Schedule C-9	677.50*	
Sale—"Glossary"	Schedule C-9	36.00*	
Admissions Policies and Practices	Schedule C-9	48.14*	
Catalogues	Schedule C-9	62.10*	
Space Utilization	Schedule C-9	192.25*	
High School-College Relations	Schedule C-9	45.95*	
Evaluation of Foreign Students Credentials	Schedule C-9	102.85*	
Machine Equipment	Schedule C-9	9.00*	
Office Management	Schedule C-9	27.00*	
Withholding Tax—Employees		1,099.00	54,668.26
<i>Total Receipts and Beginning Balance</i>			<u>\$78,263.82</u>

Less: Cash Disbursements

General Administration	Schedule C-2	\$ 8,869.74	
1959 Convention	Schedule C-3	15,443.74	
Editor's Office	Schedule C-4	8,889.24	
Treasurer's Office	Schedule C-5	3,475.32	
Committee on Evaluation and Standards	Schedule C-6	1,087.18	
Committee on Regional Associations	Schedule C-7	2,866.49	
Committee on Constitution and Bylaws	Schedule C-8	73.00	
Committee on Special Projects	Schedule C-9	26,004.38	
(\$24,803.59 plus starred * items above)			
Withholding Tax—Director of Internal Revenue		979.00	67,688.09

Total

\$10,575.73

Less: Transfer to New Treasurer on May 18, 1959

— 1,000.00

In Transit at May 31, 1959

— 6,220.54

Cash Balance—Chemical Corn Exchange Bank of New York

May 31, 1959 \$ 3,355.19

Placement Service

AACRAO maintains a Placement Service, which serves as a clearing house for those seeking employment and those with vacancies to fill. The service is under the direction of Oliver Wagner, Washington University, St. Louis 5, Missouri. There is no charge for listing.

There is a fee of \$3.00, however, for those who wish to publish a notice on this page. They should send with their application for listing, copy for the advertisement (limited to 50 words) which they wish to insert. For insertions beyond the first, the charge is \$1.00 an issue. Remittance in full in favor of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers should accompany the application.

Correspondence, applications for listing, and inquiries about advertisements should be directed to Mr. Wagner. Requisitions and purchase orders should be directed to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, in care of Mr. Wagner.

Neither the Association nor its Committee is an employment agency, and neither assumes any obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers. It is expected that at least some reply will be made to all those answering advertisements.

POSITION WANTED as registrar in a small Southern college by woman with A.B. and M.A. degrees and several years' experience as an assistant registrar. Address: Box 160, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee. (1/1)